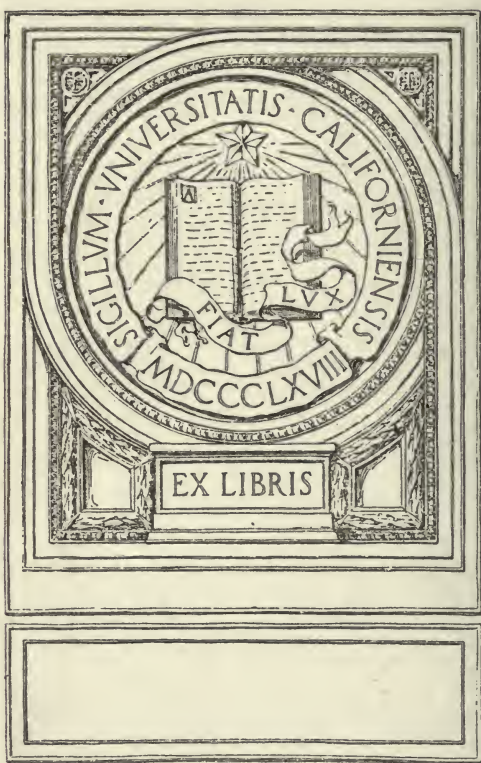
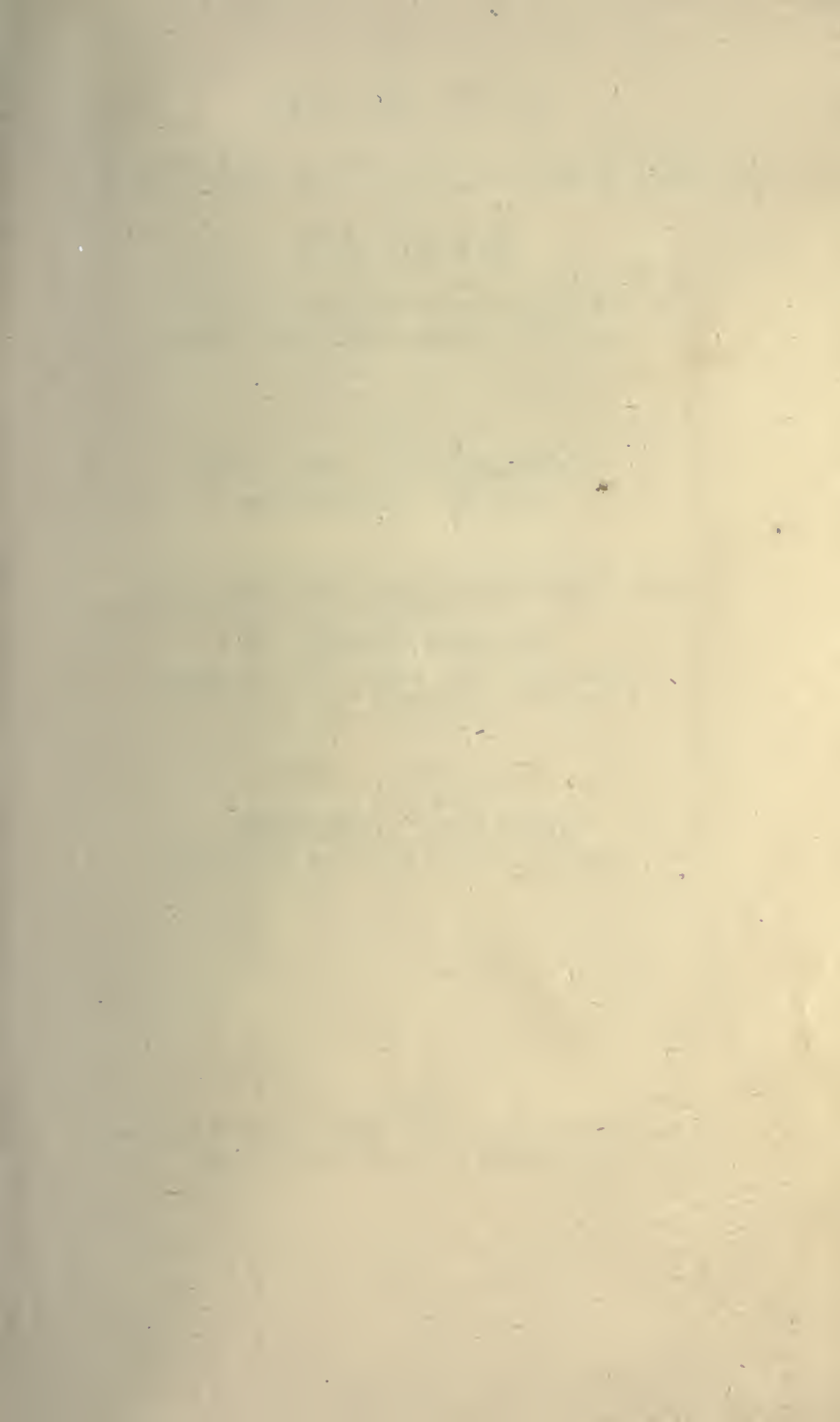


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HOW TO DO BUSINESS WITH RUSSIA

HINTS AND ADVICE TO BUSINESS
MEN DEALING WITH RUSSIA

BY
C. E. W. PETERSSON
(OF PETROGRAD AND RIGA)

WITH NOTES AND ADDITIONAL CHAPTERS

BY
W. BARNES STEVENI
(AUTHOR OF "THE RUSSIAN ARMY FROM WITHIN,"
"PETROGRAD PAST AND PRESENT," "THINGS SEEN IN
RUSSIA," ETC., ETC.)

AND A FOREWORD
BY
CHARLES E. MUSGRAVE
SECRETARY TO THE LONDON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

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DEDICATED TO MY BROTHER
OSCAR STEVENI
FIRST GUILD MERCHANT OF PETROGRAD
AND CRONSTADT
AND MY OLD FRIEND
C. E. W. PETERSSON

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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FOREWORD

AMONGST the many outlets for increased British trade after the war, the popular imagination has been more impressed with the prospects in Russia than in any other part of the world. Without suggesting for a moment that there is not some ground for the belief that the opportunities presented (if rightly exploited) will be as profitable as they are limitless, I welcome the present work because it does not seek to minimise the difficulties confronting those who propose to open up business with Russia for the first time. Neither Mr. Steveni nor Mr. Petersson, whose joint and separate minds have been brought to bear upon the subject-matter of the book, have adopted the second-hand generalities of theoretical writers or the one-sided style of a prospectus. Their friendliness towards Russia and its people is beyond question, but they insist upon the need for understanding the local trade conditions, the national characteristics of the people in different parts of a vast Empire, and the essential differences between Russian business methods and our own. Something might also be said for a better understanding of British methods by Russians. Its very frankness, in my opinion, constitutes the chief value of this book. The interests of both countries demand that well-meant efforts to bring them closer

together commercially shall not fail from want of knowledge of the initial difficulties to be faced and overcome. There is no royal road to success in business without the exercise of knowledge, foresight, and correct information regarding essentials. *If Russia is to prove an Eldorado for British trade, it will only be so on the basis of reciprocal advantages.* After all, there is no parallel between the Spanish Main of days gone by and the Russia of to-day : business must be done on its merits, and not by the simple, if drastic, methods of the buccaneers. My experience since the formation of the Russian Section of the London Chamber of Commerce nine years ago, which His Majesty the Emperor of Russia commended in 1909 as an instrument in developing commercial relations between Russia and England, shows that the main object to be worked for is to bring buyers and sellers together. That is what is being done every day. Englishmen are constantly going to Russia and Russians are constantly coming here ; and, in bringing them together, I have had the advantage of constant correspondence with the Russo-British Chamber of Commerce, and its branches in Petrograd, Moscow, and Odessa. On the one hand, imports from Russia were being brought into the United Kingdom in increasing quantities ; and, on the other, exports of British goods to Russia were also extending for some time prior to the war, which was naturally a severe blow for the time being to the development of ordinary business. Despite

this set-back, the transactions which have taken place in the supply of munitions and other necessities during the war have been enormous; and it is only fair to assume that with the re-opening of the old trade routes and the use of the new ones created during the war, ordinary business will be resumed and extended still further by those who have hitherto conducted it. This will be the stage at which new business will also become possible, and, therefore, in preparation for that happy time we cannot know too much about the markets and the resources of our Ally. Let us, however, not forget that Russia's future economic necessities will require something more than a mere development of the normal interchange of commodities between the two countries, the nature of which is so well described by Mr. Steveni and Mr. Petersson. British goods will undoubtedly be required in large quantities, but they will have to compete with those of Scandinavia, the United States, France, and even Canada, leaving Germany out of serious account. Russia aspires to be a still greater producing country; she needs capital for developing her own resources and industries, so as to be less dependent upon outside supplies. There will come the great opportunity for British enterprise, which should reap its reward in an adequate return for capital invested, while British machinery and manufactured goods of a special kind will be largely paid for by the raw materials and food-stuffs needed in this country. It may also be hoped, as

Mr. Steveni suggests, that a re-arrangement of the Russian tariff will assist in bringing about a freer interchange of commodities, and that the British and Russian Governments will unite in a strong endeavour to remove the many obstacles which have so far prevented the full play of those economic forces so necessary for the mutual advantage of the British and Russian people. Given these conditions, I venture to think that British enterprise, which ultimately will again have the whole world as a field for its manifold activities, will not neglect such opportunities as Russia affords.

CHARLES E. MUSGRAVE.

LONDON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE,
February, 1917.

PREFACE

THIS volume contains a summary of the experience and business methods of Mr. C. E. W. Petersson, a merchant of Petrograd and Riga, who for many years successfully carried on a large trade in machinery and kindred goods with various Russian towns. His knowledge, much of it dearly bought, the result of years of battling with difficulties, should be of great assistance to all who wish to open up commercial relations with an Empire which, owing to its immense natural resources and its status in the present war, bids fair to become one of the most influential Powers of Europe, and an unrivalled field of industry.

Conditions and methods in Russia are very different from those of Western Europe. Russia is, in many respects, still a semi-Oriental or Asiatic State. Petrograd, Helsingfors, Riga, Reval, and the coast towns are more or less European in their ideals and intercourse, but the farther one travels into the interior, towards the Urals and Siberia, the more evident it becomes that the major portion of the country is Asiatic in characteristics rather than European, and, therefore, that business can only be done satisfactorily according to Eastern custom. Some guidance is absolutely necessary to English and American firms that contemplate an opening in this vast Empire; for want of advice or timely hints, many keen business men of London and New York have come to grief when handling

Russian affairs, losing thousands of pounds and years of time simply because they were unfamiliar with the ways of a strange land.

In no European country is it so difficult for the Britisher to open up his trade as in Central and Eastern Russia ; but it must be remembered that a rich harvest awaits those who will take the trouble to investigate these districts. The enterprising merchant who takes Russia and Siberia as the field of his labours will be amply rewarded for his initial outlay. A fair acquaintance with the language, which is not so baffling for Englishmen as is generally supposed, is necessary unless agents are employed. The wants of prospective customers must also be carefully studied. A Russian writer remarks—

It is not an unknown thing for Russian traders to receive from England invoices and trade details written entirely in English. Germany is far more astute, and the headway she has made in Russian trade is largely due to her energy as a linguist and to the close study she makes of Russia's needs. Germany sends her youths abroad to study the language and business methods of her customers, also of her competitors; and if Britain is to extend her trade in Russia she will have to revise her own methods, learn the lesson that Germany places before her, and train her coming business men so that in international trade they may be on terms of equality with other nations.

Since the following pages were written, the Revolution in Russia has taken place, and it may be that the new regime in that country will modify considerably some of the questions dealt with in this work ; but whatever changes do take place, they will be mostly for the best.

Russia, after many centuries of oppression and

repression, will be opened out to the capital, enterprise, and energy of the nations of the West. Her gateways of commerce, industry, mining, and agriculture will at last be thrown open, and, owing to her great resources, she will recover quicker than any other nation from the cruel wounds this war has brought on her people.

Enlightened manufacturers and business men, educated in her Universities and High Schools, in touch with Western European methods, will now have a voice in all those departments affecting the commercial, industrial, and financial well-being of the country. The numbing and deadening power of the Tchenovniks (Bureaucracy) and of the old corrupt police, who levied blackmail on the merchants and manufacturers, will now be curtailed, and in many instances entirely done away with.

But whatever reforms are carried out among the thousands inhabiting the great cities, they will but little affect the business methods and customs of the Kooptzee and the vast masses of the peasantry, who, in Russia, are exceedingly conservative.

The towns will change quickly owing to the influx of Western ideas and capital, but the *real* Russia, which is mainly agricultural and pastoral, will alter but slowly.

For these reasons, the hints of information contained in this little volume will always be of value to those who desire to do business with Russia, no matter whether her form of government be autocracy, monarchical, or republican.

I am much indebted to Mr. Petersson for allowing me to translate his work, and to make such additions and alterations as may cause the book to be of more

value to British and American readers. I wish also to thank the late Dr. Kinnard and Miss N. Peacock, joint authors and editors of the *Russian Year-Book*, for many valuable items; Mr. C. E. Musgrave, Secretary of the London Chamber of Commerce, for valuable hints and advice; the circle of Russian teachers (under the leadership of Mr. V. V. Ooroosoff), who have enabled me to obtain special information regarding the industrial resources of the Empire; and other friends whose help has aided me to produce a handy book of some assistance, I hope, to business men.

Although certain names have been quoted, in view of anti-German legislation in Russia, and the extinction of many German and Russo-German firms, it is advisable to make careful inquiries in banking, shipping, and other circles as to all the houses mentioned in this work.

Many changes have also been made in British Consuls and British officials. There have also been alterations made in the Russian postal regulations, many of which will be found duly notified in the London Post Office Directory and the *Russian Year-Book* of the present year.

I trust, in conclusion, that this book will rouse the interest not only of business men, but of the general public, assisting them to form some idea of the inexhaustible wealth and possibilities of the country, so vast yet so comparatively unknown, with which we as a nation have lately been brought into such close contact.

W. BARNES STEVENI.

HOLDERTHORPE COTTAGE,
BRIDLINGTON,
April, 1917.

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HOW TO DO BUSINESS WITH RUSSIA

PART I

(BY W. BARNES STEVENI)

CHAPTER I

RUSSIA AS A FIELD FOR BRITISH ENTERPRISE

THE present war, which is devastating a considerable portion of Europe and exhausting the remainder, will for a time probably have the effect of closing the markets of Germany, Austria, and perhaps Turkey in Asia, to our own commerce, and shutting off other territories which hitherto have been open to British enterprise and capital. It thus becomes more and more needful for our merchants to be well up in a knowledge of the inexhaustible resources of the Russian Empire, and to judge for themselves what an immense field is offered by Russia and Siberia to energy and money rightly applied.

The extent is so vast, the lands are so rich in material and industrial possibilities, that more than

2 HOW TO DO BUSINESS WITH RUSSIA

a glance is impossible in so small a volume as this ; but doubtless enough will be said to open the eyes of many who have imagined that they are well acquainted with the economic position of this great Empire. Owing to the war, certain information has necessarily been omitted ; this, it is hoped, will be inserted in a later and more complete edition. It would be of no use, for example, to give a list of the principal English firms in the country, for many English merchants left Russia at the outbreak of hostilities, their places having been taken by native or neutral houses ; this information, however, can be obtained through our Consuls or by inquiry of some of the chief shippers trading with Russia. Again, the customs tariff has been omitted, as it will be entirely altered as soon as a more stable state of affairs occurs. Leaving out, therefore, details which would only be misleading, I shall simply present as it were a picture of what Russia really contains.

This enormous Empire, which ranges from the Baltic to the Pacific, occupies an area of about 8,400,000 square miles, only a small portion of which is properly cultivated or exploited. European Russia, which I shall treat more fully, may be divided roughly into 40 per cent. of forest, 25 per cent. agricultural land, 15 per cent. meadow land, and 20 per cent. barren soil or steppes, much of which could be cultivated.

The Northern Governments will be dealt with first.

Archangel and Vologda

These provinces are exceedingly rich in forests, which abound with animal life—bears, foxes, elk, lynx, squirrels, hares, and other fur-bearing fauna. The densely wooded land covers three-quarters of the North, pine, fir, and birch or larch forming the main portion of their valuable timber ; but owing to the absence of labour and means of transport this wealth has hardly been touched. I have myself seen millions of roubles' worth of timber lie rotting, or destroyed by fires. Chemical and other products—methylated spirit, potash tar, celluloid, pulp—worth untold wealth, are wasted thus. There are very few mills ; commercial enterprise is slack in the North, for since Petrograd became the capital, Archangel and Vologda, with an area equal to Germany and France, have been neglected to such an extent that it is safe to say that our Elizabethan forefathers knew more about the interior of these provinces than we do to-day. All these Northern Governments, which were known even in Saxon days, and, through the enterprise of the Novgorod and Wisby merchants, sent their goods to London, are full of latent possibilities ; game, timber, fish, minerals, oats, rye, flax, tallow, etc., will be exported from them in immense quantities as soon as they have been opened out. Petroleum is also found in paying amounts in these districts, especially at the source of the Petchora. The northern parts of these two provinces contain millions of acres of flat tundras, or marshy land

unfit for cultivation, which for three months in the winter season is illumined only by the weird and mysterious light of the Aurora Borealis ; but the summer sun covers these vast stretches (which probably extend several thousand miles into Siberia) with a carpet of beautiful wild flowers, and with wild berry-bearing bushes. Cranberries, bilberries, and other small fruit fit for human food, could be exported from here to England in thousands of tons.

Below the tundras, the expanse of wooded land begins, some of the forests being as large as the whole of England. These regions are almost deserted, and probably have not more than three or four persons to the square mile. The climate is exceedingly healthy, and the people are strong, hardy, vigorous, inured to every kind of danger. The old independent spirit still survives in these distant dwellers of the far North, for they are descendants of the Novgorodians, who never came under the Tartar yoke, nor were made serfs, as were the rest of the Russian people. In their blood flows the free spirit of their Norsemen forefathers, and this brings them near in feeling and thought to our own people, who, like them, inherit similar qualities from Viking forbears.

Vologda, like Archangel, still slumbers, and is only beginning to awaken to life. Two-thirds of this rich Government is forest. There are a few linen and other mills. The woods abound with game of all kinds ; there are also great numbers of

partridges, ptarmigan, capercailzies, wood-fowl, wild goose, duck, and snipe ; these reach England in moderate quantities *via* Archangel.

The Murman Railway

With the opening of the Murman Railway, which is connected with Petrograd and the sea, these provinces, almost forgotten since the days of Ivan the Terrible, who destroyed the liberties and trade of Novgorod the Great, to which they belonged, will come to a new lease of life. Had it not been for the present war, which emphasised the need of a northern outlet for Russia's trade, this important line might never have been completed ; and as in Russia it is considered a feat of engineering second only to the Siberian Railway, the following particulars, published originally in a Norwegian paper, will be found of practical interest—

It may be said to commence at Petrograd, and is divided into five sections : (1) Petrograd-Zwanka, 114 versts (76 miles), old railway ; (2) Zwanka-Petrozavodsk, 256 versts (170 miles), new railway completed ; (3) Petrozavodsk-Kern, 408 versts (271 miles), new and completed ; (4) Kern-Kandalakscha, 322 versts (215 miles), new, in course of construction ; and (5) Kandalakscha-Murman Port, 265 versts (177 miles), new railway completed ; total, 1,365 versts (910 miles).

Section 1 is a part of the State northern railway system to the Urals. Section 2 is the new private, so-called Olonetskaja Railway, built with a view

to the Murman traffic. This is entirely finished, as are Sections 3 and 5, although Section 3, some 80 versts south of Kern, is not quite ready. Section 4 is the only portion not completed, but there is every reason to believe that it will be ready about the end of the present year (1916), when the whole line should, consequently, be open to traffic.

Murman Port, the terminus at Kola, lies 10 versts north of the small town of Kola, and thanks to the Gulf Stream is never closed by ice. So far, wooden quays have been constructed for three large steamers, and a crane of 25 tons capacity has been installed. The inner port is spacious and well protected; more than forty good-sized boats have been anchored there at the same time. Besides, Kola Bay itself makes an excellent harbour, from 1,200 to 3,600 yards wide, with a depth of water of 70 feet. The greatest difference between high and low water is 13 feet, and there is comparatively little current. At low tide the depth at the quay is 30 feet.

It is difficult to over-estimate the importance of the opening of this line, which will occur at the beginning of 1917. No land in the world with such possibilities as Russia is so unfavourably situated as regards outlets to the sea. Archangel and the other northern ports are ice-bound for a considerable part of the year; the same applies to Russia's ports on the Baltic, more or less. The Dardanelles are not under Russia's control, and Vladivostock has thus been the only ice-free harbour

at Russia's disposal throughout the year. But Vladivostock is 6,000 miles from Petrograd. No wonder that the nearly completed Murman Railway is hailed with a feeling of relief and great satisfaction throughout the country.

The building of the line is especially notable in view of the rapidity with which the work has been pushed ahead under unfavourable circumstances. The length is not so tremendous, being 834 miles of new line ; but it passes through districts offering very serious and varied difficulties. There were no roads along which men and materials could be conveyed to the spots where they would be wanted, yet everything had to be transported over long distances at a heavy cost. In some places the track ran through granite deposits ; in others through primeval forests. Worse than either of these was the great distance of boggy country which had to be crossed. For hundreds of miles the line had to be built on piles. There was also trouble with labour and engineers ; for many foreign contractors sent both engineers and men from distant parts who often left again, so that the Russian Government had to take up the work. Swarms of insects also harassed the workers during the summer months ; but all the troubles and obstacles have now been overcome.

[NOTE.—On the 9th December, 1916, the Murman Railway from Petrograd to the ice-free port of Aleksandroffsk was opened with great ceremony by the Tsar's representative.]

“According to the Russian press, the Norwegians, notwithstanding their heavy losses, are preparing to exploit on a large scale the trade of Northern Russia, opened out by the Merchant Adventurers of London in the sixteenth century. With their well-known energy and enterprise, the Norwegian steamboat companies have ordered in Canada over 800,000 tons of shipping, which order must be completed in two years. Besides this order, 185,000 tons have been ordered in England, and 300,000 tons in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. In consequence of these orders, the Norwegian mercantile marine, despite its heavy losses, will soon be larger than before the war.

“This enormous activity on the part of the Norwegians is explained by the fact that, after the war, they not only intend developing the maritime traffic of Northern Russia and Siberia, but also the economic resources of the Russian North.”—*Exchange Gazette*, Petrograd, 16th December, 1916.

CHAPTER II

HOW TO INCREASE BRITISH EXPORTS TO RUSSIA

SOME years before the establishment of the *entente cordiale* with Russia, Prince Scherbatoff visited London, Hull, and other important centres with the object of strengthening the commercial bond between the two Empires. Many of the observations I made on that occasion in one of the leading papers of the North of England on his project and mission hold good to-day, though the Prince's labours have perhaps been forgotten. Having always taken a lively interest in the promotion of commercial relations between England and Russia, I feel that a summary of these views will not be out of place now that there is an evident and mutual intention to bring about permanent good feeling.

The Tariff a Handicap

As a resident in Russia for twenty-seven years, I fully agreed with many of the Prince's ideas; he did excellent work for his country and for humanity. On some points, however, I did not completely hold with him. In the first place, I formed the opinion that he was unduly optimistic and somewhat misleading when he affirmed that British manufacturers could supply larger quantities

of agricultural implements and of all kinds of clothing. The expression "a larger quantity" is indefinite in the extreme; the question is, how much larger? I do not think this increase could be great, in the face of American and German competition, which, until the war, was annually growing. If we examine the almost prohibitive tariff drawn up by the Russian Government against cotton, cloth, hardware, and other goods of British make, our exporters may well feel dubious about the "larger quantity" spoken of by the Prince. Even though English manufacturers and merchants were to wake at the eleventh hour and adapt their methods to Russian needs, it would be very difficult with the present tariffs to furnish first-class English goods at a price low enough to squeeze through the barriers Russia (and other Continental nations) has raised against the excellent productions of the much abused British workman.

British Goods too dear with present Tariff

Prince Scherbatoff was right in stating that our merchants and manufacturers do not study sufficiently the requirements of the Russian people; but I have no doubt that they would do this more if only the Russian Government made it worth their while. British goods, with the present tariffs, are too dear for the ordinary Russian customer. The Russian middle and lower classes are, comparatively speaking, too poor to buy high-class English wares, and have had to content themselves

with inferior German productions, not having learned that cheap American and German articles are often the worst in the end ; or, if they do realise this elementary fact, their economic position is such that they cannot yet make use of their knowledge. If the status of the moujiks and landowners could be improved by wise legislation and by the encouragement of agriculture, instead of being lowered by the neglect of this natural and vital industry of the Russian Empire (as contrasted with manufactures alien to the soil and mostly of foreign origin), Russia would undoubtedly become the best market in Europe for our goods, especially if the tariffs were reduced. The peasantry of that Empire would benefit by this fiscal reform, for they would immediately be enabled to purchase not only cheaper but far better articles for their money. They would then buy more agricultural machinery, and with its aid increase the agricultural exports of their country.

Spurious "English" Goods

The Prince's idea of establishing English agents, knowing the Russian language, in the rural districts, was an admirable one, but it is a question whether the English Government or English manufacturers could afford to adopt this plan so long as the present tariffs are in force. It is undeniable that British goods—machinery, hardware, cloth, leather goods, and many other sorts—are in great request in Russia, but as the Russian trader cannot supply

the real article owing to the evil referred to, he is compelled to let his customers have worthless imitations made on the spot or on the Continent, a practice which causes very heavy loss to our home firms. When a Russian merchant wishes to impress his clients with the fine quality of his wares he frequently calls them "Anglisky," or labels them as such, though sad to relate the goods thus designated have often not seen England and are a libel on sound English workmanship. British merchants can convince themselves of this fact if they will take the trouble to send agents to the shops in Petrograd and Moscow ; they will be able to see quite an imposing collection of spurious "English " goods, which deceive only those who have never had an opportunity of purchasing the genuine thing. The principal lines thus shown are hats, leather and woollen goods, linen goods, broad-cloth, hosiery, cutlery, perfumery, and pickles ; but the list could be largely extended.

Commercial Relations should be Encouraged

It was a great mistake, and a loss to British houses, that the "English Exhibition " which the Russian nobility and other influential persons in Petrograd intended holding in the beautiful Taurida Palace, before it became converted to the uses of the Duma, never took place. Every attempt to the encouragement of commercial relations between the two immense Empires should be welcomed. Had this great Exhibition been held, the merchants

and people of the capital would have seen for themselves how excellent and cheap are English goods. (I say "cheap" deliberately, because, although dearer than German articles, they are far more durable and in better taste, and durability in the end means economy.) The people would have been able to handle and inspect the genuine English goods instead of imitations. And some endeavour might have been made in Ministerial circles to reduce the duties on items such as hardware and machinery, things much needed by the industrial and agricultural classes to increase their output.

Is the Present System Fair ?

Sooner or later, the English Government and people will be obliged by the force of circumstances to protect themselves against the loss which has already overtaken their agriculture and several important industries through the mistaken policy of allowing Russia and other nations to flood our markets with their goods, while they take every precaution to keep our exports out of their own markets. That this system should be permitted to continue is highly unfair and unjust to our industrial and agricultural classes. To term this "Free Trade" is nothing but a lie and a sham—a lie, because it is not free trade as Cobden intended it ; a sham, because it deceives unthinking people by a false and entirely inapplicable name. By all means let us have free trade if Continental nations

will adopt it ; but if they insist on raising barriers against our goods, let us pay them out in their own coin. If we favour any one, we should give our Colonies the preference. After them may come the European nations which may be inclined to adopt a give-and-take policy. On the last occasion when I met M. Kovaleffsky, then Minister of the Board of Trade, I expressed these opinions, and hinted that we might some day be forced to retaliate if Russia did not lower her tariffs. M. Kovaleffsky, on hearing this, seemed very perturbed.

Prince Scherbatoff said that there was a growing tendency in his country to do away with the imposts on many imported articles, and that it would soon be found that there were practically no protective duties on manufactured goods imported into Russia. It would be interesting to know precisely what the Prince meant by the word "soon." If this word is analogous to the Russian term "seychas," which can be translated "this hour," "immediately," "soon," "some time," or "never," we may be pardoned for feeling sceptical about the imminent arrival of the "good time" he promised. His Excellency doubtless meant well ; but even he could do nothing without the then all-powerful M. de Witte. I once interviewed M. de Witte on this very subject. On that occasion the remarkable man, who did so much towards making Russia a great industrial Power but so little for her agricultural development, informed me that he wished "to cultivate friendly relations with England on

a commercial and economic basis." I believe the Minister was sincere in that aspiration. In fact, he showed his sincerity in many ways—chiefly in promoting and assisting the Russian Industrial Exhibition held at Glasgow; although politically he was no friend of England.

These endeavours towards a *rapprochement* of *permanent* value must not be all on our side. As it is, we are the largest consumer of our Ally's raw agricultural and other produce in the world. All her grain, timber, hemp, flax, hides, wool, etc., comes to us practically duty free. Prince Scherbatoff wished that we should become still better customers, and made many helpful suggestions as to the ways in which trade between the two countries could be benefited. As far as I can see, most of the benefits that would have accrued through the carrying out of these suggestions would have fallen to Russia, owing to our goods being kept out of the Russian markets by the tariffs then obtaining, in some cases almost prohibitive. The merchants of Hull spoke their minds to the Prince on this sore subject pretty freely when he visited that town. Yorkshiremen have a habit of speaking "straight out," and their words on that occasion possibly had some good effects.

The whole matter now resolves itself into this: What will the Russian Government do for us if we carry out the Prince's suggestions? For the most part they were sensible, practical, and patriotic as far as his own land was concerned. We, on our

part, must be equally sensible and patriotic, and before making any further arrangements whereby Russian agricultural imports may be encouraged should stipulate that Russian tariffs on our machinery, agricultural implements, and manufactured goods shall be diminished whenever existing treaties with other Powers will permit. If this cannot be done, we must give our Colonies the preference with regard to their raw produce, and only take from Russia, and from other countries that follow her system of prohibitive duties and high tariffs, what we absolutely require and cannot do without. This is plain speaking, but in the end it is for the best.

There is little doubt that we can do a much greater business with Russia. Englishmen and Russians can work together with far less friction than either nation has with the Germans. In the simplicity, hospitality, large-mindedness, and generosity of the genuine Russian people there is something congenial to the British character, and it will be well for both nations if the ridiculous prejudices that for so long have kept them estranged can be finally dissipated by the results of the present alliance in the greatest conflict of history.

CHAPTER III

RUSSIA'S ELDORADO¹

HAVING had many opportunities of becoming thoroughly acquainted with the country in aspects other than social, I may, with some reason, hope to add to the knowledge of the reader.

Siberia's Claim to Attention

For twenty years I have systematically drawn attention in the Press to the extensive undeveloped resources of the Empire of our Eastern Ally, and have also lectured on the subject, in the faith that the British public will awaken to the importance of Russia and Siberia as a sphere of travel, and that by means of commerce and social intercourse the two greatest colonising nations of the world will be brought into such close contact that all idea of war between them will be out of the question.

Our Elizabethan forefathers, under Willoughby and Burroughs, in 1553 and 1556 visited the White and Polar Seas and circumnavigated Waigat Island by means of the Kara and Yugor Straits. These brave men were followed by Chancellor and some of London's Merchant Adventurers, who, in return for their enterprise, received valuable concessions from Ivan the Terrible. In our own times, Captain Wiggins, whose acquaintance I made while acting

¹ By Eldorado the writer means a country enormously rich in minerals, especially in gold.

as correspondent in Petrograd for a London paper, also made use of the Kara Sea route in his endeavours to open out the Siberian rivers to our commerce ; but he was compelled to give up owing to the hostility of the Moscow merchants and heavy losses incurred by the Pophams, his supporters, in navigating strange Siberian waters. The Emperor Alexander III so warmly appreciated his work that he gave the Captain a fine set of drinking-vessels. His name will live with that of Chancellor, Willoughby, and other great Polar navigators, for he was a man of large ideas, and accomplished much.

Our Ambassador at that time, Sir Robert Morier, believed strongly in Captain Wiggins's project. The English and Russian nations owe a lasting debt of gratitude to Sir Robert ; it is well known at the Foreign Office that it was through his personal influence over the Emperor, a straight and plain-speaking man like himself, that the two countries were twice saved from war with each other. Shortly before Sir Robert Morier left for Schlangen Bad, whence he was never to return, he admitted me to an interview. It was about the last he ever gave, and he showed me this favour because he was exceedingly anxious that the British people should learn through the medium of the Press the possibilities of these Eastern lands. The gallant Captain and Sir Robert are now no more, but the interest they awakened still continues.

Other Important Regions

Siberia, however, is not the only portion of the Russian Empire which should claim our attention ; there are others nearer at hand full of interest. The vast regions bordering the White Sea, drained by the rivers Petchora, Mezen, and Dwina, with enormous forests abounding in game, lakes and rivers teeming with fish, are practically unknown for lack of capital and enterprise.

ARCHANGEL, with a population less than that of Liverpool or Manchester, is nearly as large as France and England together.

VOLOGDA, which Ivan the Terrible thought of making the capital of his Empire, is the centre of a butter industry growing in importance every year.

PERM, the next Government east of Archangel, mentioned in the Chronicles of Alfred the Great as " Bjarmaland," had in 1912 dairies numbering 2,750, and its mineral and forest wealth are emphasised in this book.

OLONETZ, like all these Northern Governments, is rich in accessible resources, and I am of the opinion that these districts, which in normal times are comparatively easy to reach from this country, should receive the special attention of British capital.

The Urals

After they have been exploited, our modern Merchant Adventurers could consider the claims of the regions east of the Urals, with rivers two or

three thousand miles long, precious metals still untouched, copper, iron, and coal in abundance, and millions of acres of pasture-land capable of growing the finest cereal crops. There are districts in Siberia which have never been trodden by the foot of any European; so vast and so rich that the Russian people, alone and unaided, will never be able to take them in hand. It has been estimated that between the Baltic and the Behring Straits there are, under the Russian sceptre, 9,000,000 square miles of territory to a great extent practically virgin. This area contains about 185,000,000 inhabitants, but there is ample scope for six times that number. Putting it in another way, there are two or three persons to the square mile in Siberia, twenty-five in European Russia, and in Belgium, normally, 250.

A Great Future for British Enterprise

Obviously, Russia must have outside help if she is to develop her resources adequately, and there is a great future for British enterprise, and for that of other Continental nations, if she will encourage it on a more liberal scale. This is the only way to make her a prosperous nation, and to better the indescribably wretched economic condition of millions of her peasantry; they will then be able to buy at home many of their requirements which now, owing to their grinding poverty, they have to dispense with completely, confining their small purchases to the simplest necessities of life.

Capacity for Growing Cereals

Canada, similar in climate and many other respects, has a population of about 8,000,000, and an area about one-third that of Russia ; approximately 33,000,000 acres of land are cultivated—one-eighth of the arable land in Russia. In Russia, the main food of the people is rye ; but although she raises the largest crop of rye in the world, she grew, in 1916, about 100,000,000 quarters of wheat to Canada's 26,000,000 and 76,250,000 from the United States. Considering the backward state of agriculture in Russia and the comparatively small proportion of the land under cultivation, this yield is marvellous, and shows what could be produced were the peasants in a position to buy the machinery and implements that are to be found on almost every farm in America and Canada. Properly educated, and assisted with capital, they could grow not only sufficient cereals for their own use (which now too often they cannot do), but enough for the world—the great belt of black soil stretching from the Altai Mountains to the Carpathians would more than suffice for that great object. As a matter of hard fact, Russia from time to time is scourged by terrible famines, affecting millions of her people, carrying off by starvation hundreds of thousands who might now be living in comfort had they had the advantages of the English, French, and German peasants.

Forests, Gold, Petroleum, etc.

Of every three trees in Europe, it is calculated

that Russia and Siberia have two ; the forests occupy a thousand million acres ; the inland seas which we term " lakes," and the rivers, are stores of wealth in fish and game ; the frozen " tundras " contain probably more gold than was ever mined in the known gold-fields of the world. Russia and Siberia are the true Eldorado, and had Raleigh known what we do to-day he would have sailed to Muscovy, and not to the Pacific, in search of fortune. The petroleum wells of the Caspian, the Caucasus, Central Asia, and Northern Russia, still await development. More than 120 companies, with an authorised capital of £60,000,000, have been formed in England to exploit Russian industries, and three-fourths of this money has gone to the oil-fields. How much has been wasted owing to ignorance of Russian ways and usages on the part of the investors ; how much, too, has been lost owing to want of principle among the promoters of oil companies ! Had they been really aware of Russia's resources they would never for a moment have thrown away time and money belonging to the shareholders by initiating ventures of dubious solidity.

Ignorance of her resources, and of the peculiar methods obtaining in the land of Muscovy, have had much to do with the lack of interest in Russia's affairs shown in this country. It is hoped that this little book will be of some assistance in putting British investors on the right track at last, and that it will show them that there is no need to waste their capital and time over questionable enterprises

in Russia ; for, with care and patience, they are bound soon to find something which will repay them for all their labour and study, and bring them in that ideal of all business men—a good return for their outlay.

CHAPTER IV

FINLAND AND THE LAKE REGION

THE mineral wealth of the Northern Governments, and their timber industries, naturally are spoken of first ; but we must not forget that soon the enormous fisheries of the White and Polar Seas will be available ; they have already been visited by our enterprising fishermen of Grimsby, Hull, and other East Anglian ports. These seas abound with whales, polar bears, seals, and the walrus ; also with cod, turbot, soles, herrings, and many other varieties which would find a welcome in our markets.

Resources of Finland

West of Archangel and Vologda is the semi-autonomous province of Finland, which is about as large as Great Britain and Belgium. This, with a population of about 3,350,000, is supposed to be a poor country, but the writer, who has visited it many times, can testify that this idea is mistaken. It not only has rich forests, covering two-thirds of its area, but granite, marble, iron, and copper are plentiful ; water-power exists everywhere, and its thousands of lakes teem with fish and wild-fowl. At Imatra and Kajana there is unlimited water-power, and the salmon-trout fishing round these places is probably the finest in Europe. In time,

Finland should become one of the finest wood-pulp and paper-producing countries known.

Importance of Northern Russia

For these industries there is also a great field in Northern Russia, especially in the lake region, where there are many forests, waterfalls, and rapids. This romantic and lovely district, which contains the largest lakes of the Continent (Ladoga, Onega, and Ilmen), comprises the Governments of Petrograd, Olonetz, Novgorod, and Pskoff. In some respects it is the most interesting, historically, in the whole of Russia, for it was here, among the lakes and woods, that the free Varangian Roos, from Roos-lagen in Sweden, founded their first colonies, which subsequently became the nucleus of the great Russian State—"The Land of Roos," as it was called. Here they established the free Republics and Grand Duchies of Novgorod, Tver, Pskoff, Yaroslaff, Vladimir, and Suzdal, which did a large business with London through Wisby on the island of Gothland, even before the Conquest. The merchants of Wisby had their own Guildhall at Blackfriars Bridge, and there is reason to believe that not only the English sea code and coinage, but the whole form of civic government was introduced by these merchants of Gothland, who first imported to this country the products of the land of Roos long before it was known as Muscovy. It is estimated that three-fifths of this lake region is forest. The inhabitants are chiefly Great Russians

(descendants of the Novgorod Slavs and the Norsemen). This branch of the Slav races is without question the most powerful, gifted, hardy, handsome, and enterprising of all the races of the Empire now known to us as Russian—a name often misleading; for many so-called Russians are Tartars, Finns, Germans, etc.

The nearness of this region to the capital and to the Gulf of Finland, the numbers of waterways and canals which are connected with the interior of Russia *via* the Volga and other spacious rivers, all tend to make it of supreme importance to the trade of the country. To the fact that Petrograd was built on the banks of the Neva (which is the outlet of this system of waterways) is owing the capital's enormous importance commercially. Petrograd has over 500 factories and mills, and an output valued at more than £20,000,000 a year. These mills employ many English engineers, foremen, and skilled workmen, and their numerous requirements are an ever-increasing source of trade and profit to British exporters and merchants, who supply them with machinery, oil, coal, and other necessities.

A Vast Field for British Capital

The Governments adjoining Petrograd are also very rich in timber, which is exported in large quantities both from the port itself and from Cronstadt, which harbour is crowded with British

shipping in the summer months. Many of the factories and mills are wholly or partly owned by Englishmen, who, as a rule, make large profits from their investments in Russian industrial enterprises, mainly owing to the protective tariffs, which, even on British goods, are exceedingly high. Investments in Russian mills are generally both safe and profitable when carried out with caution and knowledge. Twenty, thirty, and even forty per cent. profit on the capital invested is not uncommon, owing to the tariff, and to the fact that the investor has a market with about 180,000,000 people throughout the Empire at his very doors, without taking into consideration those of Persia, Central Asia, Manchuria, and Mongolia, where Russia's wares find many purchasers. There is a vast field for British capital in farming, forestry, the timber trade, from foundries and mining, and hundreds of other departments awaiting development, besides the manufacturing pure and simple. I have met, during my twenty-seven years of residence in Russia, many Englishmen who came there with hardly a cent, but who are now prosperous and wealthy owing to the scope this wonderful Empire offered to their energy and knowledge. With the increasing purchasing power of the people, which has probably doubled since the abolition of the spirit monopoly, there will be a growing demand for the erection of more factories, mills, and other works, *for the greater the wealth of the people the greater their buying power.*

Olonetz

North-east of Petrograd lies the Government of Olonetz, again rich in lakes and rivers, plenteous fish and fowl, and extensive forests which supply huge quantities of timber to the capital. The lakes of Olonetz are famous ; for curiously enough they are very rich in iron ore of the finest quality, obtained by dredging. This ore was prized in the days of Queen Elizabeth ; so much so that Ivan the Terrible granted a special charter to the Merchant Adventurers of London permitting them to dredge the river Vvichegd and the lakes of the north. The principal town of the province is Petrazavodsk, founded by Peter the Great, and known, through his enterprise, for its cannon, gun, and iron-works. Near this town are quarries which yield beautiful marble, much used in the construction of churches and palaces.

Novgorod and Pskoff

South of Petrograd lies the fertile, wooded Government of Novgorod, once the most prosperous part of the Empire ; for it contained the oldest, most important city of ancient Roos, Novgorod the Great, with a thriving population of about 400,000, and a trade which extended to England and France in the west, Genoa and Venice in the south, and Central Asia, Persia, and Siberia in the east. The territories of this mighty trading republic of merchants, navigators, pioneers, and soldiers, reached to the Baltic and the White Sea, and

thence to the confines of Siberia. Novgoròd now, like its sister city Pskoff, is a small, sleepy, provincial town, with hardly a vestige of its former glory. From its destruction by Ivan the Terrible and the massacre of its citizens and merchant princes it never recovered, and probably never will, for its place has been taken by Petrograd, Moscow, Reval, Riga, and other cities, which some day may be of as little significance as Novgorod now is. The sister republic, Pskoff, lies south of Novgorod, adjoining the shores of the beautiful Lake Ilmen, so rich in historic and archaeological interest. Pskoff, once a powerful city which defied the armies of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden and John Batori, King of Poland, is now as sleepy as Novgorod ; its few thousand inhabitants are chiefly engaged in growing hemp and flax. Apples, cherries, and other fruits are plentiful in this Government ; but as regards trade on a large scale, its fame has departed, and of its wealth and power scarcely a trace remains.

CHAPTER V

THE BALTIC PROVINCES, CENTRAL RUSSIA, AND THE VOLGA REGION

WEST and south of the Government of Pskoff lie these three provinces, Esthland, Lithuania, and Courland, now partially occupied by Germany ; they are engaged principally in agriculture and manufactures, and are populated by Letts, Lithuanians, Esths (Esthonians), and Germans. Much fruit is grown, especially pears, apples, cherries, and plums ; sooner or later this will find a market abroad. Agriculture is on a very high level, many of the farms and estates being as up to date in their methods as those of England or Germany. Off the coasts fish is plentiful, but hardly in sufficient quantities to warrant exportation.

Products of the Western Region

The western region (Zapadny Krai) consists of the Governments of Vitebsk, Minsk, Mogelev, Vilna, and Grodno ; these are well timbered with oak, pine, birch, poplar, beech, and many other trees familiar to us in England. The country is often marshy, and in such places the rainy season renders traffic almost impossible. The forests along the course of the Dnieper shelter many wild animals and all kinds of game ; buffaloes are met with in the west, as the German invaders found to their

cost when they occupied this almost savage, strange land.

The rivers Dnieper and Berezina, and the excellent canal system, enable the produce, timber, grain, etc., to be brought easily to the Baltic seaboard. Honey comes in plenty from Lithuania, and the wax is sold to churches and monasteries for making candles and tapers—an industry dating from almost prehistoric times, probably one of the oldest in Russia. Vitebsk is famed for its butter, and also exports leather. Minsk has numerous sawmills and match factories. Mogelev grows timber, and has sawmills, match factories, breweries, and paper and other mills. In the province of Vilna there are glass-works, tanneries, sawmills, tricots, etc. Kovno has many mills, iron-works, and breweries. In Grodno there are tobacco factories, cloth and blanket looms, and glass-works; honey also is produced. The Vistula region (Previslinsky Krai), which is in direct communication with East Prussia by means of the rivers Vistula and Niemen, consists of the following Governments: Warsaw, Kalesh, Petrovsk, Bjeletsk, Radom, Lublin, Lomskia, and Souvalskaja. The northern portion is very marshy, but in the thickly wooded south we first meet the noted rich black soil (*tcherny zëm*) of which we shall have more to say later on. The Governments of Kjeltsk, Radom, and Petrokovsk are traversed by spurs of the Carpathians, which add greatly to the beauty of the scenery. From the commercial point of view,

these hills, in some places 2,000 feet high, are rich in minerals : iron, zinc, lead, copper, chalk, marble, plaster of Paris, limestone, are all found in profitable quantities either in mines or in quarries. At Dombrova Gornaja, in the Berdensk district, there are fifteen coal seams supplying about 4,000,000 tons annually—an output which could be increased. This is used in the country, but the zinc is exported. Sugar-beet thrives in these southern districts, and fruit is plentiful. The south of Russia has a climate that induces fruit-bearing, and the dried and preserved fruit of Kieff is celebrated. The whole of the south contains valuable coal beds ; but, owing to the cost of transport to the Baltic and Black Sea ports, it is more profitable to bring coal from England by sea to Riga, Petrograd, and Odessa.

The Central Industrial Region

This includes almost all the central Governments drained by the upper reaches of the mighty Volga, the largest river of Russia. The principal manufacturing Governments are Moscow, Tver, Yaroslaff, Kostroma, Vladimir, Rjazan, Toola, Kalooga, and Smolensk. These practically constituted the ancient State of Muscovy, just as the northern Lake Provinces formed the nucleus of the old kingdom of Russ or Roos. There are few English or American houses in this region, and there is no doubt that time and money spent in studying the possibilities of the Volga basin will not be wasted. The Volga

is one of the largest rivers in the world, its total length being about 2,200 miles, from its source in the Valdai Hills to the delta at Astrachan. It drains fourteen Governments, containing a population of about twenty millions, and has 28,000 miles of waterways, 7,000 being navigable. Many thousand miles of these tributaries are available for steamers of light draught, which could easily be built in Sweden or England. As railways are too expensive to construct on the vast scale needed by this country, the best way to develop its wealth is to open out these trading routes of ancient days by means of light steamers, tugs, and barges ; these could be conveyed on wheels (as was done by the Norsemen) when a watershed intervened. This river traffic could be managed to greatest effect by the English, Swedes, and Norwegians working together ; it is too expensive a project for any one nation to undertake alone.

Trade of Saratoff¹

Saratoff is the largest town on the Volga ; its trade is chiefly in agricultural machinery and implements, electrical machinery, articles of domestic utility, textile goods, etc. Products such as linen, hemp, horsehair, feathers, mats, camel-hair, bristles, eggs, fish products, fruit, and petroleum products, also find a ready market.

In the Governments of Saratoff and Samara, German and Swiss colonies have existed from the

¹ By C. W. Petersson and W. Barnes Steveni.

time of Catherine II, who invited the original colonists to Russia. Most of these people, who still keep to their Lutheran religion, and their native customs, and speak their own language, are well off; they are engaged principally on the land, reliable, steady, industrious folk, so honest that contracts or written agreements are unnecessary when doing business with them—their word is their bond. Although the majority are farmers, a not unimportant section consists of merchants and manufacturers.

For the use of strangers there is an excellent Address Bureau in the town, where addresses may be obtained. The two best papers from the advertiser's point of view are the *Saratoffskyi Listok* and the *Vjestnik*. The *Zemstvo*, a large agricultural union, publishes an industrial journal, and is a flourishing organisation run on sound business lines. Information as regards credit must be obtained *via* Moscow, but some of the chief banks of Petrograd and Moscow have branches. A knowledge of Russian, and familiarity with Russian ways, are essential here, and the German consulate mentions the necessity of having "a strong character and good health"—two conditions for the business man desirous of success in Saratoff.

Notary Public: N. N. Tschje. Hotels: *Rossija*, *Europajskaja*, etc. Several places east of the Volga should be covered while working this district; the whole region is worth close attention as a market for almost all the goods exported from America,

England, and Sweden to the rest of the Russian Empire.

The remarks that have been made about Saratoff apply also to Simbirsk, Kazan, and Samara. From Samara there is direct railway communication with Orenburg. Hotels in Samara : Amerikanskaja, etc. Notary Public : Nicholai G. Schpadi.

Astrachan

Here is situated the principal centre of the immense fishing industry of the Southern Volga and the Caspian Sea—fisheries which bring in about £3,000,000 annually to those engaged. The petroleum workings, both in their character of refineries and export, also employ a section of the population, and many steamers owned by wealthy Persian and Armenian merchants traffic to and from this thriving port.

Caviare, sturgeon, sterlet, are obtained in great quantities and prepared for consumption at home and distribution abroad. Caviare is sent to London, Paris, and Berlin by the well-known firm of Saposhnikoff. All kinds of fishing tackle and appliances which can be used in exploiting the piscatorial wealth of the inland sea, not forgetting the steamers' needs for commerce, should find a good market here. In the Caspian, millions of herrings are caught, and ships, nets, tackle, etc., used in this connection are more and more required as the trade increases. There are also near Astrachan many vineyards; and vine-growing, if encouraged,

ought to lead to a large export trade in the local wines.

The Volga Region

For the most part the Volga region is well wooded, and these forests, as the writer can aver, are exceedingly badly exploited. The fertile soil is often not cultivated at all, or else without knowledge of its possibilities. Part of the country is marsh-land, but pine, fir, birch, and lime trees occupy about half the Governments of Kostroma and Yaroslaff, and a third of Tver and Smolensk. In the north the soil is frequently poor, but along the banks of the Oka (a tributary of the Volga), where the black earth is also found, it is very fertile. Soil which in England and Germany would be thought rich, is in Russia often abandoned as barren, owing to the ignorance of the people of the very elements of agriculture, and their inability to purchase phosphates and other fertilisers : these, in Russia, have a great future. The Great Russians form the chief population of these Central Governments ; they are described by a native author, Tomasek (to whom I am indebted for much information), as " lively, resourceful, industrious, hospitable, religious, remarkable for their love of country. They prefer to settle in communities, thus their hamlets and villages extend over a large area ; their cottages are beautifully situated, and charm the eye with their carved or thatched roofs. Their men make a good impression, being of medium stature,

broad-shouldered, with expressive, good-natured countenances." The purer the stock, the fairer they are ; in fact, the word " Roosy " has from this circumstance come to mean a person who is fair, with blue eyes, fresh complexion, and golden, auburn, or red hair. If these Great Russians had half the educational advantages and the more favourable environment possessed by other European peoples, they would produce even more notable men than they do, in every branch of activity.

The comparative poverty of the soil has compelled a large part of the population to devote its energies to commerce and industry ; this section has, therefore, become the manufacturing centre of the country.

Industries of Moscow and the Central Provinces

The extent of the industrial energy of the Central Provinces is hardly ever realised in England. Cotton-spinning and linen-weaving factories are numerous. Moscow is the principal manufacturing centre ; the value of the goods produced by the Moscow mills is said to be far in excess of £20,000,000, while the turnover of the city's trade amounts to £200,000,000. In 1911 there were 5,311,773 spindles for spinning cotton and 203,932 for twisting cotton in the Central Moscow district alone ; the total amount spun in the whole Empire in the same year exceeded 9,000,000 poods weight, half of which was home grown, mainly in Russian Turkestan.

Moscow, with its hundreds of mills and thousands of looms, supplies the home markets, and has millions of customers in Asia. There are also large manufactories of agricultural implements, but the home production here cannot meet the requirements of the agricultural population.

In consequence of this extensive trade within and without the confines of the Empire, many of the Moscow merchants are wealthy. It is a city of millionaires, but the millions are usually reckoned in roubles, not in pounds. During my residence in Moscow, I met many of these men, of peasant origin, who had built up their enormous fortunes more by thrift and economy than by speculation. It is said that a goodly proportion of these self-made men are even now unable to write their own names; they carry their huge business transactions in their heads, since, naturally, they cannot keep books. Such a statement applies to the rich peasant merchants ("kooptzee") rather than to the millionaires, many of whom are well educated, and travelled; with, in fact, a University training. Among the great mill-owners we may mention the Chloodoffs, Prochoroffs, Raboochensky, Mamentoffs, Arbikoseffs, Grives, and Moroseff. The last magnate employs about 60,000 men in his mills at Kostroma, Tver, and Moscow. Formerly a large number of English workmen and foremen came to Russia, but the people are so adept at spinning and weaving, so quick at learning, that few "njemtzee," or foreigners as they are termed, remain in genuinely Russian

factories. I have visited mills in the interior where not a single Englishman or German was to be seen ; all the workers and foremen were born Russians. Yet, though they are so good at learning and imitating, it cannot be said that they are inventive ; thus they have to depend on England and Germany for the various machines that are constantly being introduced, especially in the textile industries. And the importation of so much English machinery of new design means that English machinists, engineers, and foremen have to come over to manage it and to instruct ; many of these remain in the country and rise to very lucrative positions, being allowed to establish works, mills, factories, in accordance with the regulations of the State. The making of ordnance and small arms is, however, reserved by the Government, and is carried on at the Pouteeloff, Letenaja, and Oboocheff works, while rifles are made at Toola and at Sistoretsk in Finland.

Village Industries of the Volga

The building of so many factories has resulted in the decline or destruction of many of the village industries for which Russia has been famous for centuries. The peasant industries bring in many millions of pounds in wages to the people during the winter, when, owing to the intense cold, agriculture and field work are impossible. They comprise textile work, metal work, wood-carving, embroidery, cutlery, leather work, the making of furniture, lacquer and horn goods, clay working,

fur dressing, shoemaking, brushmaking, tanning, the painting of "ikons," or sacred images, toy-making, stone-polishing, and the making of crude agricultural machines and implements. Many of these goods have found their way to London and other English markets, and have given great satisfaction, owing to their cheapness, solidity, and originality of design. It would need volumes to describe these marvellous village industries in detail. Some of them could easily be established in England. An idea of their magnitude may be gained from the following statistics from a few of the Volga Governments alone—

Astrachan . . .	£730,000
Simbirsk . . .	£1,250,000
Kazan . . .	£2,200,000
Samara . . .	£2,400,000
Saratoff . . .	£4,000,000

Near Kazan there are villages where the Tartar women alone make 3,000,000 embroidered slippers annually, worth 5,000,000 roubles.

Tver

For centuries Tver was famed for its trade and the enterprise and intelligence of its people, and is still an important centre, with many large cotton and spinning mills. East of Tver is the village of Kimry, which, with its neighbours, employs 15,000 men who every year make boots to the value of £600,000. In this Government there are also many glass-works. The inhabitants are said to be the best educated in all the Russian provinces.

Yaroslaff

This is the capital of the Government of that name, and is noted for its linen mills ; and KOSTROMA, the next Government farther down the Volga, partly covered with forest, must not be omitted ; it has many cotton, linen, spinning, and weaving mills, also iron foundries. The forest wealth of this region should soon attract attention now that a railway is being built through it by the State.

Nishni Novgorod

An idea of the immense trade Russia does with Eastern and Central Asia can be formed by visiting the great annual Fair of Nishni, held on the low-lying ground where the Oka empties its waters into the Volga. The European contingent, of course, is noticeable ; but Kalmucks, Khirgise, Finns, Tartars, Persians, and even Japanese, with many other Asiatic races, are represented in their thousands. In spite of the vicissitudes it has suffered, this is still the largest fair in the world ; it lasts only about six weeks (from 15th July to September), but about 130,000,000 roubles' worth of goods are sold in that period. Most of the wares are exposed in booths spread over many acres of ground. Near Nishni are some very large iron-works, said to be owned by an American firm, the Sormovo Company, which constructs steamers and marine engines, etc. There are also several mechanical engineering, and other works in the city. Manufactured goods, groceries, furs, wool,

cotton, iron, cloth, precious stones, velvets and silks—almost every imaginable kind of article is bought and sold at this fair. The peasant merchant is much in evidence, dressed, though perhaps a rich man, in the same costume as the peasants, of slightly better material. His favourite method of doing business is to adjourn to a “trakter,” or tea-shop, and there swill tea and lemon until the contract or bargain is completed. Sometimes whole days are spent in the process; in Russia time is not money, and “slow and sure,” or its equivalent saying, is the national motto. Should you attempt to rush him and do business in a hurry, in the Western European manner, then the affair is “off”; he will not sacrifice any excuse for tea-drinking, or do anything speedily. The idea of business morality is somewhat similar to that obtaining among the Japanese traders; but the younger generation of Moscow merchants, who are more highly educated, frequently pride themselves on following the modern European methods instead of the Muscovite ways—which are practically Oriental, in reality if not in name.

Other Fairs

There are a great many fairs in Russia which should be visited by English traders and merchants wishing to obtain a foothold, to buy goods first-hand, and to make themselves at home with the peculiar notions of the people. The following are important fixtures of this nature: Margarinskaja (Archangel), for fish, grocery, and corn produce;

the Troitskaja Fair, in the Don region, for cattle and horses, etc.; the Pokroffskaja, for corn and agricultural produce; the Lesnaja (Kazan), for timber; the Karavanaja (Kazan), for cast-iron goods; the Contractavaja (Kieff), for carpets, silk, cloth, machinery, groceries; the Menoomuskaja (Orenburg), for wool, leather, cotton, etc.; and the great fair of Irbit, in the Government of Perm, where furs and manufactured goods are sold every year to the value of 30,000,000 roubles.

It would take many more pages to tell of all the fairs that are held in this strange land where East and West, like two contrary streams, become so blended that one can hardly be distinguished from the other. The Kieff Contract Fair, already alluded to, is known as one of the most important annual gatherings of business men in the country. A good working knowledge of Russian should be gained before visiting these fairs if business is desired, as the majority of the peasant merchants speak only their own tongue, and frequently have a great objection to a foreign language—especially German.

There are many flax markets, the principal being those of Konstantinoffka, Vladimir, and the Slav-rovo, where business and tea-drinking are the order of the day.

Vladimir

At one time, this town was the capital of Old Russia, and is now famed for cotton mills, calico printing, and the painting of ikons. This latter

work is often carried out with fine taste and much devotional feeling. Whole villages in this Government are engaged in the dressing of calico. It is noted for its peddlars—men who wander all through the land selling their wares, and who sometimes end their labours by becoming well-to-do merchants. The peasant has the true Tartar instinct for trade, and is never so happy as when haggling, buying, and selling. He is exceedingly shrewd, and were his kind but more temperate and thrifty, the Jews, who are much maligned owing to their commercial characteristics and competence, would have great difficulty in competing with “simple Ivan Ivanovitch.” The Jews are generally content with a small profit and a quick turnover, whereas the Moscow peasant does not care to move unless he can see his way clear to a big profit, perhaps 25 or 100 per cent. “Roup na roup”—a rouble for a rouble—is his favourite notion of a “moderate” profit; but he does not always succeed in living up to this lofty ideal.

Rjazan

The Government of Rjazan is engaged chiefly in growing grain and raising cattle.

The flourishing town of TOOLA and its Government, lying to the south of Moscow, are known for iron-works, gun and munition works, which, during the present war, have been, of course, exceedingly busy. By all good Russians, Toola (or Toula) is beloved for its tea-urns (samovars) of copper;

their value must be astonishing, for every year about 200,000 of these household necessities are made and sent all over the Empire. Revolvers—of very bad quality—come from this town, as do fowling-pieces, which leave much to be desired, as I can attest from dearly-bought experience. Quantity rather than quality seems to be the motto of many Russian workmen; they are frequently as careless in their work as the Japanese and Chinese are careful and painstaking. “Nitchevo,” that mysterious word which means “Never mind,” “It’s all right,” “It will do,” and anything else complaisant under the sun, expresses too often Ivan Ivanovitch’s ideal, especially when engaged on work that does not quite appeal to his religious, conservative, or superstitious instincts. There are, however, certain things which must not be done badly; the painting of an ikon, the decoration of a church, the tempering of an axe. But what does it matter, he thinks, if one does not bestow all one’s care on the construction of some “ne-chesty” (unclean) foreign machine, the invention of the Evil One or of some bad spirit?

Kalooga

The town and Government of Kalooga are engaged in the growing of grain and in manufactures—foundries, match factories, porcelain works, are found here. The town and Government of SMOLENSK (the scene of Napoleon’s defeat) produce and deal with quantities of flax, hemp, etc.

(W. B. S.)

CHAPTER VI

THE UKRAINE (THE BLACK EARTH REGION)

SOUTH of Moscow, after passing through the Government of Toola, we come to the so-called "Black Earth Region," the granary of Russia and the home of the Little Russians, whose forbears, even in the days of Herodotus, supplied ancient Greece with corn, and grew practically the same crops then as their descendants do now. It comprises the thirteen Governments of Volinia, Podolia, Kieff, Tchernigoff, Pultava, Kharkoff, Koorsk, Orloff, Voronesh, Tamboff, Penza, Samara, Saratoff. This belt of beautiful soil is estimated to extend all the way from the Altai Mountains, in Siberia, to the foot of the Carpathians—a distance of about 6,000 miles, and to supply, if cultivated, sufficient wheat, barley, rye, and oats to feed Europe. The whole of the belt is remarkable for its great fertility; in many places the soil is so rich that several harvests a year can be grown for a period of four or more years without manure or fertilisers of any kind. Could the peasants afford to purchase English and American ploughs, which would turn up the earth underneath the parched and exhausted surface, the crops would frequently be doubled, and all risk of the too prevalent famine years removed.

" Little Russia the Blessed "

The finest black earth ("tcherny zem") is in the south, along the tributaries of the Don and Dnieper, particularly in the Governments of Kieff, Podolia, Tchernigoff, Pultava, and Kharkoff, known on account of this extraordinary richness of the land as "Little Russia the Blessed." Here, almost every sort of fruit and cereal flourishes; in consequence, the Khochols (Little Russian peasantry) are very prosperous compared with their countrymen in the north. I should say that the majority of them are far better off than English peasantry and labourers, for their land produces at their doors well-nigh everything they need, either as food or apparel. They live in clean, white-walled, thatched cottages, usually surrounded by a garden or an orchard. In these gardens, which are peculiar to Little Russia, cherries, apples, pears, apricots, pumpkins, melons, tobacco plants, and herbs, with other plants that supply dyes for clothing, grow in profusion; and, behind the cottage, fowls supply household needs. As a rule, the country consists of rolling plains or steppes, resembling the Downs of Surrey and Sussex; but only for a short time can Little Russia be compared with these lovely counties, for when the summer sun beats down vegetation soon becomes parched, withering for lack of water. Artesian wells and pumping machinery are so needed here that they are almost of more value than gold and silver.

In olden days, dense forests covered many

portions of the Governments of Kharkoff, Pultava, and Tchernigoff, but these, through the ignorance of the people and the deforestation that is being remorselessly carried on in many parts, are now arid and devoid of trees or vegetation. The very names of the towns—Starodoub, Sosnitsa, Tchernigoff—point to the fact that in ancient times the oak, pine, and fir flourished near by. But even in the days of Catherine II timber began to be scarce in these districts; it was found difficult to obtain enough timber for the construction of monasteries and churches. Probably owing to this scarcity, to-day the Little Russians generally have their cottages of wattles, plastered with clay, and roofed with straw. But notwithstanding the reckless waste referred to, stretches of well-timbered country are still found here and there.

If forests are scarce, land is plentiful and cheap. A few years ago, land was being offered for sale in Southern Russia for 15 roubles (30s.) per desjatin (two and three-quarter acres), not far from the ports of Novo-Rossisk and Rostoff-on-Don, near the Vladikavky Railway. About 800,000 desjatins were then being rented (according to the *Novaja Vremja*) for $\frac{1}{2}$ d. a desjatin; this was in the Don region, near the Government of Stavropol. The usual price of good land in Southern Russia is from £6 to £10 per desjatin. For want of capital, water, and agricultural machinery, thousands and hundreds of thousands of acres of fertile land, on which fruit and grain could be grown, now lie

barren and waste. Deforestation, ignorance, and apathy have had much to do with these evils, which will only be remedied when the people become more enlightened and the authorities more progressive.

Official Holidays

One of the factors that keeps Russia back is the great number of church and official holidays. In some parts, almost half the year is spent in holiday-making, and only an Empire so rich could afford to lose so many working days every year. Had we such a number of idle days as the Russian peasantry, our people would starve, for the majority of Englishmen are landless, and must, therefore, live by industry or commerce—or by their wits.

Tobacco Cultivation in S. Russia

Russian tobacco should find a ready market in England. More than 150,000 acres are planted, and it is sold at 4s. a pood (36 lb.). In 1896-1898, 22,500 tons were forwarded from various stations in Southern Russia. The best comes from the Kuban region of the Caucasus. In 1911, 1,397,143 poods of home-grown tobacco were delivered to the different factories.

Wine

Wine also is a great feature of the South, Bessarabia, the Caucasus, Trans-Caucasia, and Turkestan. The South from Astrachan to Kieff is also

a wine-growing country. It is almost as cheap as water is in some of the hilly districts, and when the Russians have learnt the art of preparing it like the French, there should be a large market for it in England.

Cattle Rearing

Cattle rearing is also important. Thousands of bullocks and oxen are sent annually to Moscow and Petrograd from these parts. The two best breeds are the Tcherkesk (Caucasus) and the Ukraine. When I lived in South Russia, a good ox could be bought for 25 roubles (£2 10s.), and an excellent Cossack horse for £6—one that would take a careful rider for many a thousand miles.

The SUNFLOWER is a feature of the landscape in some parts; its seed is used for feeding poultry, and the oil derived from it is valued for cooking and illuminating purposes.

BEE CULTURE is general throughout the South; enormous quantities of honey and wax are sent to the capital by the peasants, some of whom own as many as a thousand or two thousand hives.

HORSES are so numerous that in Kharkoff I have been offered by the Cossacks a foal at 3 roubles. Some of the finest are bred in Orloff and Tamboff; in this last Government alone there are 173 studs for rearing thoroughbreds, and in Kharkoff it is estimated that the horse census gives the number of 1,191,000!

Coal, etc.

Professor Mendelyeff, the eminent Russian scientist, well known in England and America, has said that "the time will come when the South will repay all the energy spent upon it, for its coal will preserve the remaining forests from destruction; wages will increase, trade will develop, and general prosperity be awakened. *Its economic victories are of almost greater importance than any military triumph.*" Before the war, it was thought that coal from this part of the Empire would shortly be sent to Constantinople. When a few more railways have been constructed, and when less prohibitive tariffs have been arranged, there is no doubt that the whole of the Southern ports will be supplied with coal exclusively from the vast deposits on the Don and Donetz rivers. The Donetsky coal district is about 666 miles long, with an area of 11,000 square miles. And salt, alabaster and mineral springs are found in the same localities, to say nothing of cinnabar (red sulphuret of mercury), silver, lead, and zinc. The annual output of coal from the Donetz region is at present about 64,000,000 tons. It is said that this region could supply the whole world with coal at the present rate of consumption for fifty years, even at a shallow depth of working.

Obviously, this part of Russia may be expected to see the future industrial centre of the land. Professor Mendelyeff, looking farther ahead, prophesies that it will ultimately become the world's centre of industry. Such a result may be within

the realms of possibility, but the achievement will not be rapid. Indeed, it will never come about unless Russia throws her doors open to foreign enterprise and capital, a course which her rulers, for various political reasons, have been reluctant to adopt. The authorities only admit foreigners when they find it difficult to do without their help ; they seem to act against their cherished plans and prejudices only when compelled by sheer force of circumstances, and the necessity of borrowing money from abroad. The *entente* at present in operation may alter this mood considerably.

It will be of interest to notice, in some detail, the works of the "New Russia Company" in the Donetsk region, founded by one John Hughes, member of an old Welsh family of engineers. Coming originally to Russia in connection with a new method he had devised for forging armour-plate, he resolved, on seeing the possibilities of the country, to settle there, and in 1871 he erected the works which bear his name, "Hughesovka."¹ The "New Russia Company" leased from Prince Leven an estate of about 275 acres for thirty years, with the right to renew the contract for another thirteen years at the end of the period. The rent at first was only 6s. an acre ; for this sum they had the right to build, and to exploit the mineral wealth for an area of 5,500 acres. They were to pay the Prince 10d. for every ton of large coal obtained,

¹ The Emperor Nicholas granted permission for the town to be named after its founder, John Hughes.

and 5d. per ton of small. A few years ago the Company acquired the right of perpetual possession of the whole of the 5,000 acres for the sum of £250,000; thus they can proceed in less limited fashion. They have set aside a large area for the use of workmen who desire to settle on the estate; this is subdivided into plots, rented at reasonable rates. Dwellings for the men are also erected, and this enterprise has succeeded admirably. The works are now of enormous dimensions, and a population of over 40,000 has displaced the cows and sheep which formerly roamed here. Most of the rails used on Russian lines come from the Hughesovka factories; and quantities of cast-iron are also turned out. The founder is dead; but his four sons carried on the works, the eldest, Mr. John Hughes, being Chairman of the Company.

The London offices are at 1, 2 and 3 Queen Street Place, E.C. The present directors are A. Balfour (Chairman), C. F. Gooch, and J. J. Hughes.

I have given some space to describing this enterprise simply to show how Russia and England might benefit were we to work together for the exploitation of so rich a country. John Hughes turned a barren steppe into a flourishing town; what might not be done with Southern Russia, with British capital and energy?

(W. B. S.)

Mineral Wealth of Russia

Those who are interested particularly in minerals will appreciate the following article on "The Mineral

Wealth of Russia," which appeared, before war broke out, in the *Anglo-Russian Gazette*—

In 1898 there was melted in Russia about 2,229,000 tons of iron, of which 1,008,000 came from Southern Russia, 714,000 tons from the Urals, 236,000 tons from Poland, 181,000 tons from Moscow, 27,000 tons in Finland, 26,000 tons in Olonetz, and 10,000 tons in Siberia; ten years previously, in 1888, there had been produced 668,000 tons, which shows an increase for the ten years of $3\frac{1}{3}$ rd. This large increase was due to the development of smelting works in Southern Russia, which was itself a result of the adoption of mineral fuel, and the enormous expansion of the railways system. With the decreasing use of wood as fuel for smelting furnaces, the industry received a great impetus, and now, although in a tentative condition, the iron, both pig and manufactured, which is exported from Russia yearly, reaches a not inconsiderable figure when it is remembered that a few years ago Russia was a great importer of manufactured iron goods.

The *Torg. Prom. Gazeta* gives the following details concerning the iron industry in Russia in 1908-9: Exports, cast-iron, malleable iron, and steel, in tons, 1908, 106,700; 1909, 156,300; iron and steelware, and machines, in tons, 1908, 4,800; 1909, 4,600; steam-engines, in number, 1909, 19; railway wagons, in number, 1908, 441; 1909, 100.

It will be seen from the above that there is a general shrinkage, excepting for rails and steel. The iron industry is not new in Russia; but the development of great iron manufactories is new. Great fluctuations in the exports show that the industry is still in a rather tentative stage, and the details which follow are interesting from this point of view rather than because they treat of any great volume of trade. The figures given are in tons, and are for 1908 and 1909 respectively: Germany, 2,200 and 14,700; Austria-Hungary, 1,600 and 64; Roumania, 22,100 and 6,900; United Kingdom, 22,800 and 10,700; Italy, 7,000; Denmark, 9,100 and 16;

Netherlands, 900 and 2,000; Belgium, 16 and 129; France, 161 and 5; Turkey, 16 and 16; Bulgaria, nothing in 1908 and 4,600; East Indies, 6,000; South America, 9,900 and 50,500; United States, nothing in 1908 and 3,300; Africa, 2,500 and 31,700 !; China, 5,000 in 1909; Japan, 7,000 in 1908. The iron trade suffered very severely in 1909 owing to the formation of a new syndicate embracing nearly all the large establishments. Each separate firm is, however, free to complete the orders and contracts concluded before joining the syndicate, which came into operation on 1st-14th January, 1910.

The output of finished iron and steel in Russia during the year 1909 totalled 2,572,000 tons, as compared with 2,335,000 tons in 1908. The figures relating to employment for the year 1908 and 1909 are not to hand, but those for 1906 show 32,827 employed in mining iron-ore, out of a total of 360,298 engaged in mining and mineral working, and for 1907, 35,059, out of a total of 394,588 employed. The iron-ore workers are not specially classified in the returns made regarding deaths from accidents in mines, quarries, and other mineral workings, but out of a total for the whole world in 1907 of nearly 10,000 deaths from accidents in all mines and quarries, Russia is responsible only for 546.

Siberia. According to one account, gold mining on any appreciable scale in Russia began in the eighteenth century. The principal auriferous districts are to be found in Siberia, in the Governments of Tomsk and Yenesei, in the Provinces of Zabaikal, Yakoutsck, Amur, and Primorsk. The less important ones are found in Central Asiatic Russia, in the Provinces of Semipalatinsk, Akmolinsk, and in Finland. Traces are also found in many of the provinces of the Caucasus, and of Turkestan. The gold is principally found in placers, the quantity met with in veins amounting to not more than 8 per cent. of the total quantity extracted. The largest nugget which has been found in Russia up to the present was found at the Tsarevo Alexandrov mines in the Urals, and is on exhibition in the museum

of the Institute of Mines in Petrograd. Until the finding of the famous Australian nugget it was considered the largest in the world. Recognising the importance which the winning of gold plays in the economic and political development of a country, the Russian Government takes under its fostering care the exploitation of this industry, and has passed several laws to facilitate its development. Dredging machinery, cyanide of potassium, and all materials used in working are allowed into the country free of import duty; not only this, but the Government, recognising that the Russian Empire cannot be economically developed without the aid of foreign capital, is prepared to consider favourably any foreign enterprise in this industry.

Since 1814, the earliest date of which we have any regular statistics, progress, though persistent, has not been equal. In that year the production is given at 262 kilogrammes. From 1851-1860 the average output came to 25,730 kilos. For a period of eighty-five years from 1814, Russia has produced 1,919,000 kilogrammes, of which the greater part came from Eastern Siberia, with the Urals next. At present the output of gold in the Russian Empire is fast approaching that of the Transvaal, and may overtop it, one company last year producing 8 tons of gold. Immense tracts of country are as yet imperfectly surveyed, although the Government has sent out surveying expeditions at considerable expense.

The *Financial News* gives the following interesting account of recent exploration: "The Ural Mountains are geographically divided (like Caesar's Gaul) into three parts, the southern, in a more genial climate, having been the main source of mineral wealth for many years, the mines being mostly proprietary, in the holding of the highest-placed among the Russian aristocracy."

Gold to the value of 1s. 8d. per ton of alluvium sluiced does not appear to be much; but when the cost of dredging, sluicing, and amalgamation is less than 4d. per cubic yard, even such a poor-grade stuff will pay well.

Yet that is the lowest value yet found in any of the valleys of the North Ural rivers. Taken spade-deep only, and sluicing about six tons of gravel obtained from the Sukkoria River, the value of the crude alluvium was proved to amount to 3s. 11d. per ton, or 5s. 9d. per cubic yard; and this being sluiced down to a 3 per cent. concentrate, contained gold, silver, and bullion to the value of £6 9s. 1½d. per ton, or £10 11s. 9d. per cubic yard, the weight of gold amounting to 1 oz. 10 dwt. 15 grains per ton. This, it should be understood, is the value of the superficial stuff only; at depth a much richer residuum must inevitably obtain, and the real value of the test is in the proof that there is no overburden. Take the case of the Lena Gold-fields. There is an example of apparently profitless overburden, because they are mining their auriferous gravel at a depth of about 100 ft. and obtaining an average value of over £2 of gold per cubic yard brought to bank. Against this, the working expenses have to be considered—the mining, timbering, dumping, sluicing, and amalgamation; but to obtain such splendid results is indicative of the richness of alluvium found at depth.

A dredger, which is a complete floating plant, capable of raising about 3,000 cubic yards of alluvium a day from the river bed to the amalgam plates, costs, when ready for work, from £10,000 to £15,000. One advantage of working within the Arctic Circle consists in the fact that it is possible to operate day and night. The season is necessarily short—about 120 days; for, though the rivers are not frozen during the remainder of the year, a slight frost will prevent the tables working. We cannot have everything our own way, and as the working expenses of a dredger amount to only £1,500 a season, and one is capable of earning over £85,000 in alluvium containing a gold value of only 5s. 9d. per cubic yard, the shortness of the season is compensated by a large turnover and economical working expenses. Some rivers, like the Sukkoria, are here and there intersected by bars of country rock, which thus divide the channel into a series of natural sluices

This has a tendency to hold the gold better than if the bed had an unbroken inclination from source to confluence. One naturally hesitates to speculate on the length of time during which the particles of gold have been accumulating in the valley gravels, or how much of auriferous schist has been denuded from the vein outcrops on the Ural ridges. In the upper reaches of the Sukkoria river, where the alluvium commences, ice and water have cut deep gorges in the rock, thus exposing the geological formation and showing indications of the reefs; but up to the watershed there may be many auriferous veins, the continuous erosion of which during a vast period of time has supplied the grains of precious metal down below. Except in the gorges, the geological structure of the ground is obscured by a thick coating of moss, and the slopes of the hills are covered with the dense but stunted forests peculiar to such high latitudes.

The rivers which immediately drain the eastern slopes of the North Ural Mountains are long and wide tributaries of the Sigya, which is one of the principal feeders of the river Obi. They will probably aggregate over 2,000 miles in length. While all the tributaries contain gold in their gravels, it does not follow that any appreciable amount will be found in the Obi itself; and, if any, it will be so squandered as to be scarcely worth the dredging. Placer gold in remunerative quantity can exist only within reasonable distance from the derivative source, and those who may be attracted by the physical greatness of the main rivers—the Obi, the Lena, and the Volga—should bear in mind the above statement. The life of a company working a stated area of auriferous alluvium will depend primarily upon the number of dredgers employed. As a rough estimate, there are at least 10,000,000 cubic yards in the Sukkoria Valley, and one plant should deal with 330,000 during the season. Thus, in ten years three dredgers should extract that volume, and earn a net revenue of £2,250,000 or thereabouts, as an estimated minimum, the whole of the plant costing less than £50,000.

Labour, judging by our standard, is cheap, and though

not abundant, there is enough for the purpose. There are many nomad tribes who eke out a precarious existence, quite unaffected by the social and political problems which disturb both labour and capital in the centres of population. The best workers are to be found among the Ziranes, who are very tractable, and adept at devising manifold expedients which would puzzle an English carpenter. Timber, seasoned and raw, is plentiful, and is used in lieu of coal for raising steam. The climate is dry and healthy; chest diseases are unknown; and though the long winter might cause some of us to envy the Polar bear and the tortoise, who promptly sleep when their food supplies cease, we can take the last mail-boat going south into lengthening days.

CHAPTER VII

THE STEPPES, AND THE COSSACK COUNTRY

THE wide STEPPE REGION comprises five Governments and one Province : Bessarabia, Kherson, Taurida, Ekatherioslaff, the country of the Don Cossacks, and the Government of Astrachan. Hardly a single forest exists in this district, and one can travel for a couple of days without seeing a human being. Millions of sheep and horses, immense herds of cattle, roam these wild steppes in the summer, when the grass grows luxuriously and is mingled with thousands of wild flowers. Vegetation withers and dries as autumn approaches, and the long, dry grass often catches fire ; thousands of animals then perish. I have seen, in the Kuban, the horizon illumined for miles around by the flames, which devour everything in their path like the pampas fires of America.

Part of the steppes consists of sandy soil impregnated with salt ; once the whole of this region was covered by the sea. Minerals also occur plentifully in certain sections. The merino sheep is common, and its wool fetches a good price in the markets of South Russia.

The climate is hot in summer, and intensely cold in winter ; the Crimea has an especially beneficial situation, being protected by the Taurida hills from

the chill north winds, and open to the warm winds from the southern shores of the Black Sea. Consumptive persons often get on well there, and the local muscat and other grapes, eaten in plenty, are said to have great medicinal value. The brine and mud lakes of the Crimea and Odessa district are famous throughout the country.

Products of the Steppes

Quantities of Indian corn are raised on the steppes, also rye, barley, oats, millet, and buckwheat ; grapes grow almost everywhere, and flax and tobacco flourish. The tobacco from the Crimea and the Caucasus is equal to the very best Turkish. Water-melons grow in the open fields like turnips do in England, and are sold at a penny each on the spot ; peaches, apricots, pineapples are grown, and the excellent apples are sold in Petrograd in large quantities. Pears, however, do not seem to thrive in Russia as well as other species of fruit.

BESSARABIA produces excellent wine, tobacco, silk, and fruit.

KHERSON is partly industrial, manufacturing agricultural machinery and implements.

The TAURIDA, which is an ancient Greek colony, is concerned with agriculture, the growing of tobacco and various kinds of cereals. In the whole of Southern Russia thousands of tons of beet are grown—an occupation which has ample scope in England ; many landowners have become extremely

wealthy through this industry, and many sugar-refiners are now millionaires. This need not cause wonder when we remember that the sugar from beet is sold to the poor peasants at 5d. and 6d. a lb., probably costing about a penny to produce. The surplus is dumped in England and sold at 2½d. per lb. As long as this practice continues, it will be impossible for English cultivators and refiners of beet to make a decent profit. In 1907, Russia was permitted to export as much as 200,000 tons, if required. At the present time there are only 1,800,000 acres under beet, but this area is gradually being extended, so that Russia can become the largest sugar-producer in the world.¹

The Government of EKATERINOSLAFF is noted for iron and steel mills and other works. Some of the largest coal and iron mines are here.

The country of the DON COSSACKS is celebrated for its horses, tobacco factories, flour mills, and foundries. North of the capital, Novo-Tcheskask, are splendid mines of anthracite coal, which is plentiful in the south. Most of the land here belongs to Cossack freeholders, who live in "stanitzee," or settlements. In virtue of being Cossacks, each male member of the community is entitled to 500 or 1,000 acres of land. In war time they supply their own horses and equipment, and in every respect are similar to our old English yeomen before these were deprived of their lands.

¹ I estimate that £100,000,000 could be profitably invested in British beet-growing and sugar-refining industries.

The last Government belonging to the Steppe Region is ASTRACHAN, a large part of which is washed by the Caspian Sea. It has many salt lakes ; millions of tons of salt are given by these, obtained by means of evaporation. Lake Elton (it is curious to find this British name so far away) alone yields about 2,000,000 tons a year, most of which is used for curing the fish caught at Astrachan and in the Volga—sturgeon, sterlet, etc. These fisheries bring in about £3,000,000 per annum. Millions of herrings are caught in the Caspian, and the caviare from the roe of the sturgeon is, of course, an important article of commerce. About 150,000 seals are caught annually, and their skins and blubber fetch a large amount.

One of the principal places in this Government is the ancient Tartar town of Tsaryeff ; to its annual fair come the Khirgise and Kalmucks, bringing with them every year about 50,000 head of cattle for sale.

(W. B. S.)

PART II

(BY C. W. PETERSSON)

CHAPTER VIII

HINTS AND ADVICE TO BUSINESS MEN DEALING WITH RUSSIA

As it is the custom with firms which intend carrying on business in a foreign country to apply to the local consulate for advice, in this work the principle of division into consular districts has been followed. And as in such a vast territory as Russia the possibilities of disposal of goods, as well as credit and conditions of sale, vary considerably, I have endeavoured to give some brief information concerning every district, without assuming that these data in each case can be regarded as hard and fast rules.

In commercial jurisprudence, if we except the Baltic Provinces and Poland, the same laws hold good for the whole of European Russia; but it is natural that business usages should differ in widely separated territories. The precise "local colour" can only be learned by a personal visit, and this golden rule should always be borne in mind: make first, if possible, a prolonged tour of investigation before entering upon any extensive undertaking. The personal impressions of the country's commercial capacities, and of the difficulties to be encountered,

will help you to form a clear idea of the land and of the people whom you wish to secure as clients.

Postage and Telegraphs

In Russia, postal charges for both letters and parcels are the same as for other foreign countries. The telegraphic charges for both European Russia (excepting Finland) and Asiatic Russia (including Siberia) are 9d. for two words and 3½d. for every word in excess.¹ In correspondence with consulates in which there are no State paid officials it is advisable to enclose return postage, although in general this is not demanded. In the event of other services being required of the consulate (such as subscriptions to newspapers, advertising for an agent, the purchase of the local directory, Government stamps, and so on), the necessary remittance should be sent in roubles or Russian stamps.

Stamps and Duty Expenses

All bills, documents, or contracts relating to purchases or sales, receipts, and bills, in order to be valid according to Russian law, must carry a revenue stamp varying in value with the amount and kind of the transaction. A simple receipt for money is generally furnished with a 5 cop. stamp, whatever the sum may be ; but contracts concerning the purchase of goods are liable to be taxed partly in proportion to the amount in question and

¹ These postal and telegraphic charges will probably be altered after the War. (See Appendix.)

partly according to whether the sale is direct or to a middle-man. In the former case, the tax is higher.

Bills of exchange are taxed in proportion to amount ; blank bill-forms are supplied with an imprint showing the tax and the amount they hold good for ; but they are available also without this imprint, and loose revenue stamps can then be affixed. A detailed list of these expenses can be obtained from every British Consul, or from Watkins, the English booksellers in the Bolshaya Morskaya, Petrograd.

The Introduction of Business

It is advisable never to enter into new business relations without thorough previous investigations. Goods should never be delivered to unknown firms which do not furnish satisfactory recommendations and references, or guarantees of one-third cash down on the order being given and the balance against bills of lading ; or perhaps one-half against bills of exchange. In the majority of cases, business is almost impossible in Russia without giving credit. Our competitors, the Germans, gave ample credit, and do not seem, on the whole, to have suffered thereby ; but, as a rule, the arrangement mentioned holds good. Open credit (*i.e.*, without bills or other similar documents) is not advisable unless the business is with the Crown or concerns guaranteed by the Crown, or with especially well-known houses. This should not be forgotten when filling orders in small provincial towns or remote districts,

where the collection of debts is attended with great difficulty, and where reliable lawyers or agents are hardly to be found. Legal processes are long and costly, and the enforcement of an open debt entails proceedings in which the lawyer is the only gainer. On the other hand, Russian law permits the enforcement of a presented and protested bill of exchange by means of a sufficiently sharp and quick action, and if the amount is large the debtor can be made a bankrupt in a few days. The principal thing in such an emergency is to retain a good lawyer; it will then pay you to reward him with a high fee, say 5 per cent. or 10 per cent. of the whole amount. If the bill does not reach 1,500 roubles, the debtor cannot be declared a bankrupt; it is then usual to find a brother in distress who owes a similar sum, in order to make up the limit, and for both creditors to employ a lawyer.

Forwarding Agent Necessary

A very important matter is the choice of a reliable expediting firm, that is, an agent to receive moneys, pay duties, forward goods, look after the cashing of bills, etc. As goods must for the most part be delivered in a Russian harbour, and pay duty, or even be delivered free to some railway station in the interior, obviously a safe forwarding agent is necessary. Careful inquiries should be made as to the remuneration expected; commission and other charges should also be agreed upon beforehand; otherwise it may happen that the

agent will seize a large share of the profits. Among the English firms, I may mention Messrs. Gerrard & Hey, originally a German house, but now under Russian control ; they have an excellent reputation.

Samples

Samples in parcel form, as a rule, should not be sent unless by special request. The taking out of samples from the post or customs entails expense and trouble, and if they are sent unsolicited, unnecessary bother is caused. To return such items through the consulate means an expense greater than their forwarding is worth, to say nothing of the annoyance.

Inquiries re Financial Standing

In general, information about the financial standing of firms cannot be expected from the Consul. It is, however, supplied when convenient, on the condition of being discreetly used ; but there is no liability on the part of the consulate—if particulars are given, they are gratis. In Russia there are several " Information Bureaux," more or less accurate, which have branches scattered over the country. My personal experience is that these and similar bureaux are only of value so far as they verify or supplement information one obtains for oneself or through intimate connections. Their work is satisfactory, but it is a mistake for an English firm to base its opinion of a prospective

customer solely on their records. Russian banks also supply information as to the stability of business houses, but, as a rule, only to their own clients. The bank for foreign trade in Riga has a special department for this, which may be used with advantage by those who wish to enlarge their scope in the Baltic Provinces. The addresses of firms and private persons are generally available at the consulate. Inquiring after a private person, one should give the Christian name, surname, rank, and title, also the Christian name of the father, for according to Russian custom, this is placed as a title between the Christian and surname. In the towns there are address bureaux where, in return for a trifling payment, one can trace the whereabouts of any private resident. Addresses for commercial purposes can be obtained from specially organised offices. Messrs. L. & E. Metzel of Moscow, have published in Russian a directory with very useful material, entitled *Russia's Factories and Industries*, the price being 12 roubles ; the bigger directories, of course, should also be consulted—*All Russia, All Petrograd, All Moscow, and All Odessa*. A society almanac in French, issued in Petrograd, entitled *Tout Petersbourg*, gives the addresses of Court functionaries, the Diplomatic Corps, the higher officials, etc., and, in fact, is analogous to the English *Who's Who*. There is a German *Hand-book of Duties for Exports to Russia*, and in Sweden we have *Sweden's Commercial Interests in the Russian Empire*.

Exhibition of Catalogues

Catalogues of British exports, suitable in form, and printed in Russian, can be exhibited in the consular offices if they are sent gratis; those in English or German are superfluous—to buy them is simply throwing money away. Owing to the high duty levied on all printed matter—17 roubles per pood (36 lb. English weight)—it is best to order these items in Russia. Printed matter should be published with due regard to Russian conditions, giving Russian weights and measures, and prices in roubles.

Banking Facilities

Banking connections are to be found in Russia, extensive modern institutions, which do not, as a rule, make unreasonable charges for their services; among the best are the Russian Bank for Foreign Trade, the International Bank of Petrograd, the Volga-Kama Bank, the Azoff Bank, and the Bank du Nord. All these have central offices in the capital. (*See* “Petrograd” chapter.) It is wise to make use of the smaller country banks for sending remittances or for arranging moneys transferred by post or other bills in English currency.

Advertisements

These can be undertaken in the same manner in Russia as in other European countries, but must, naturally, be drawn up in good taste, and in conformity with Russian ideas and conditions. For

special purposes trade journals should be used, and the advice of the consulate followed. Some of the more important papers may be briefly mentioned. In Petrograd: the *Novoe Vremya* (*New Times*), *Rjetch* (*Speech*), *Birshevija Vjedemosti* (*Exchange News*), *Peterburgskaya Gazeta*, and the *Petrograd Zeitung*. The *Novoe Vremya* is a semi-official organ, read chiefly by officials and officers; but it has a great circulation, reaching the whole country. It is also the favourite popular paper of the War Office. The *Rjetch* is usually regarded as belonging to the Opposition. The *Exchange Messenger* is published specially for the needs of merchants, bankers, etc. Two papers for the smaller middle class are the *Svjät* (*Light*) and the *Kopeika* (the farthing paper). In Moscow, the *Russkaya Slova* (*Russian Word*) has a great circle of readers. The *Golos Moskvi*, *Moskovskaya Vjedemosti*, etc., are well circulated. In Odessa the *Odessky Listock*, *Odessky Novosti*, *Ushnaya Mwsil*, and *Odesser Deutsche Zeitung* are the best. In Riga, the *Rigasehe Rundschau* and the *Riga Tageblatt* are good, and the *Dsintences-Westniburg* goes well among the Letts, whose language resembles Sanscrit. In Kieff, the *Kievl-janen* and *Ugo Zapadny Krai* should be studied; in Saratoff, the *Saratoffsky Listock*; in Rostoff, on the Don, the *Priazoffsky Krai*; in Tamboff, the *Tamboffsky Krai*, which is the organ of the landed classes; in Irkutsk, the centre of the Siberian fur trade, the *Sibir* reigns; and Nishni Novgorod, famous for its great fair, has its local sheets of

value. There are also special newspapers for all branches of agriculture; the dairy industry and farming are represented by the *Selsky Chozine* and the *Molotchny Chozine*. For advertising on a large scale it is best to employ an advertising bureau, such as that of L. E. Metzel & Co., of Moscow; but as in Russia this is expensive, a wise exporter should follow the hints given by his resident representative. A well-composed advertisement brings good results, even in Russia.

CHAPTER IX

TRAVELLERS AND AGENTS

COMMERCIAL travellers are of the greatest importance, not only for introducing an article to the Russian markets, but also subsequently for strengthening the new relations, encouraging a good understanding between buyer and exporter, collecting debts, settling differences, finding out the reputation of the purchaser and agent and their manner of doing business, testing fresh goods, testing machines, attending company meetings, etc. Americans are said to expect three things of their travellers: "Orders, more orders, and still more orders"; but this ideal cannot be followed under Russian conditions. In Russia, the travelling representative is expected to be a good linguist, expert in commercial knowledge, well up in local conditions, customs, and habits, and, of course, to have a thorough acquaintance with his own wares. Only a prolonged residence in Russia can make the ideal traveller. A knowledge of mankind and good health, I would add, are also essential; for journeys in Russia are not easy, especially when off the great highways. A traveller should be a steady man, not under 30 years of age.

Licences for Travellers

Foreign firms must pay for a licence in order that any representative may travel through the country.

This costs 150 roubles for a whole year, and for a second half-year 75 roubles ; it can be made out either in his own name (which is more usual, since this also serves as a letter of identification), or in the name of the firm. If it is in his own name, no further tax is required ; but if in the name of the firm, a " clerk's licence " is needed, which costs from 50 to 25 roubles. In addition to these charges, there are in every case the communal and revenue duties, varying between 15 and 35 roubles according to the usage of each district. It is possible, with the aid of a forwarding-agent, to procure documents which hold good for all journeys in the interior. A duplicate is supplied if required, but the Government licence must be in a certain person's name. Should samples be carried and deposited in a customs depot (with the intention of having the duty refunded on the traveller's departure from the country) this licence must be shown.

Representatives should be directed to the various branches of the consulate, where assistance may be found valuable. English consuls, where in residence, can help with advice ; consuls of foreign nationality, who have special knowledge of English industry and its aims, do not assist the applicant so freely in his search for suitable agents. It is, therefore, best to obtain information through one's *personal* connections concerning the best firms for each special business. As the best established agents in Russia are frequently exceedingly busy, it often happens that the desired *clientele* can only be

found by an advertisement, suitable and attractive in its form.

Agreements with Agents

Before any agreement is signed with a proposed agent for a certain place or district, the most thorough investigations should be made, personally if possible. Nothing can surpass one's own observation. The finest business may be spoilt by the choice of a poor agency. The greatest losses in Russia *are caused through agents*, not through the defalcations of the actual purchaser. Throughout the whole country, especially in Poland and the South, there exists a widely distributed net of agents who, without a shred of their own capital, and lacking morals, proffer their services to unsuspecting foreign firms. All consular reports contain warnings against entering hastily into relations with agents in Russia. As a great number of these parasites, cut off from the German markets, will now turn their attention to England, foreign houses should be more cautious than ever.

CHAPTER X

CONDITIONS OF CREDIT, CESSATION OF PAYMENT, BANKRUPTCIES, ETC.

CONDITIONS of credit vary considerably with the kind of industries, the usages of the district, and the character of the goods. Not more than six or nine months' credit should be granted; yet in many cases, such as machinery, agricultural implements, motors, etc., it sometimes happens that, for at least a portion of the sum owing, from eighteen to twenty-four months' credit is asked and obtained. Even when goods are sent against reimbursement (or cash payment), an advance in cash should be demanded sufficiently large to cover freight and duty in case the goods should not be claimed.

Law Regarding Debts

A debt, in Russian law, ceases to be valid after ten years, even if the bill of exchange or other documents can be produced. Moreover, a bill which has been protested in legal form, but for which no legal demand has been made ten years from the date of protest, lapses. If, however, in the interim, partial payments have been made, the time is reckoned from the date of the last payment.

Decisions of foreign law courts cannot be enforced in Russia; consulates have no powers to enforce claims, either against Englishmen resident in

Russia or against Russian subjects. They can, in general, only assume the position of mediators ; an active interference on the part of the consulate, however, cannot be expected. Mediation by consul has little chances of success when a claim is directly contested, or when a bill has already been protested. Should the debtor ignore the written advice received from the consul to settle the matter in " a friendly manner," the consul must restrict himself, in the majority of instances, to recommending a competent lawyer for the creditor. If one finds it impossible to obtain payment, it is best to employ a debt-collecting office for sums up to 500 roubles. Fees and extra charges of reliable notaries are so high that it is hardly worth while engaging one for small amounts, though for large debts the legal method is the most practical if a reputable lawyer can be retained.

Remedies Against Debtors

The Baltic Provinces and Poland have their own commercial laws (Code Napoleon) ; thus due regard must be given to the debtor's place of residence. In Russia (excepting the regions just mentioned) we take it for granted that the foreign exporter has been informed in good time by his representative that his customer is in difficulties, and that a lawyer has been found. Then there are three ways of securing his rights : By private agreement ; by the appointment of an administrative body ; and by bankruptcy. A private settlement is to be

preferred, in consequence of the slow and expensive legal methods of Russia. The appointment of an administrative body is only possible under certain conditions ; this measure is not resorted to unless big undertakings, such as companies and extensive industries, are at stake, and there is reason to believe that with stricter control the business can be saved from ruin. The system of a board of administrators is not always attended with the desired results ; but, on the other hand, people in Russia are generally inclined to allow fairly extensive credit to any undertaking thus controlled, and even to firms which, prior to being put under administration, showed but little vitality. Each case, and subsequent action, should be decided on its own merits ; no fixed rule can be given, and one's personal judgment must be the guiding factor. A creditor who enters into administrative proceedings must be prepared often to wait a long time, and possibly for a result that is very uncertain.

Bankruptcy proceedings is considered by the " real Russian " merchants (and these should best know their own countrymen) to be avoided as much as possible. Generally, the discovery is made that after a period of several years—for legal affairs can drag on even to that extent—one will receive far less than if an immediate friendly settlement had been negotiated.

The ordinary Muscovite merchant does not, as a rule, feel compelled to bring a neglectful debtor to legal punishment, even though the culprit's business

habits have verged on the criminal. In purely Russian mercantile circles, a colleague who cannot pay his way is usually spoken of as "unfortunate"; the peasant uses the same term in speaking of one who has fallen into the hands of justice. Moreover, the decisions of a court of law in bankruptcy cases are so inadequate that a complaint seldom ends with punishment.

The arrest of a debtor can be brought about, but only at the creditor's own cost. Legal proceedings against one who has been guilty of fraudulent bankruptcy (for example, by getting rid of his assets after suspension of payment) rarely lead to tangible results.

It is obvious from the above summary how exceedingly important it is for a merchant having dealings with Russia to be informed immediately when a client suspends payment; for often the affair comes neither to bankruptcy nor to administration, but the nearest residing creditors arrive at an agreement with the debtor on their own initiative, without the least consideration for others. Those who come after get nothing. Naturally, such information can only reach a merchant residing abroad through a reliable representative, who makes it his business to place his chief *au courant* with the progress of his various undertakings. The Russian market is well worth special study, in spite of the great outlay it entails compared with other European markets.

In Moscow is published a paper called *The Commercial*, which contains every day notices of

bankruptcies and suspensions of payment, but, as the public intimation of these occurs very late, these items are rarely up to date.

It must be borne in mind that an Administration can only be set up in places where there is an Exchange Committee, such as Petrograd, Moscow, Riga, and Odessa, but an alteration in these conditions has already been planned.

Appointing an Administration

The supposition is that a number of creditors, personally or through their representatives, representing a majority of the claims, combine to apply for the appointment of an Administration, and that the assets are not less than 50 per cent. of the liabilities. Application for the appointment of an Administration is considered by the Exchange Committee, and after their sanction, also by a Court of Law (Kommertschesky Ssud), which then confirms the composition of the Board. As is seen, it is immaterial whether creditors are present or unrepresented, although up to the time in question no official publication of cessation of payment has been made ; *foreign* creditors can thus obtain information only from private sources. The decision of a court of law regarding the appointment of an administration is officially published only once in the *Senate Journal* and once in the *Government Gazette*. Objections or appeals must be lodged within seven days against a commercial law court decision before the Imperial Senate, and against an " Okrushny Ssud " decision

before the respective Court of Appeal. Such objections or appeals do not in any way retard the action of the administrator, and before the court's decision is given the position of the business has usually undergone a change. Very seldom, however, do such appeals alter any previous decision of the court.

The object of an administration is not liquidation, but, as the name "administrator" implies, to carry on and safeguard the business. If administration is decided on by a court, a moratorium comes into force for all debts up to date. Afterwards a meeting of creditors is held, and this meeting appoints administrators and confirms their power of attorney. In order to obtain a clear view of the business's position, all creditors, including those who have been unrepresented, are requested to send in their claims to the administrator. However, the law does not make it compulsory for such claims to be forwarded, neither does it fix a term within which such claims should be made. Claims which have not been made or accepted by the administrator are not considered when a dividend is distributed.

There is no special form in which claims must be made; they can be made in any foreign language, that is to say, it is unnecessary for them to be made in Russian. They can also be made in an ordinary letter, but it is good advice not to take any steps without consulting a reliable solicitor.

Bankruptcy Procedure

There is very little to add as regards ordinary bankruptcy procedure. It will be evident from the above that anyone who has to protect a claim in bankruptcy must employ a solicitor, and solicitors' names and addresses can be obtained from the consulates. As already mentioned, a debt must amount to at least 1,500 roubles before a claim can be made to put a firm into bankruptcy. When bankruptcy or an administration is decided on, a notice is published in the two papers already mentioned. A notice is also posted in the commercial courts or in the exchanges. It should be observed that a private agreement may be concluded from the day of cessation of payment to the day when bankruptcy is proclaimed, and between these two days a long time generally elapses. Creditors have to make their claims in writing within a certain time from the date of publication of the notice in the *Senate Journal*. This respite is four months when the bankruptcy has been commenced by "Okrushny Ssud" (the County Court); if, on the other hand, by "Kommertschesky Ssud" (the Commercial Court), two weeks only if the creditor lives in the same town, and four months if residing in another part of Russia, and one year if residing outside Russia. This application must be made in Russian. Documents or extracts attached from account books should be translated into Russian and duly legalised, and preferably *viséd* by a Russian Consul.

Bills of exchange can be submitted even if they

are not due for payment, but official Russian stamps must be affixed thereto. For bills of exchange claims under 600 roubles, written applications may be made ; but for claims above that amount personal application, or application by a representative should be made. Any goods held by the debtor in consignment cannot be applied towards meeting creditors' claims.

There are no legal regulations with regard to preventive steps or liquidations dependent upon private arrangements between debtors and creditors.

CHAPTER XI

BILLS OF EXCHANGE

ACCORDING to the law dated 1st January, 1903, there are two kinds of bills of exchange in Russia :

- (1) The ordinary bill of exchange corresponding to the English promissory note ("prostoi veksel") ;
- (2) Drafts, commonly known in England as bills of exchange ("perevodni veksel").

All such bills drawn within the Russian Empire must, as before stated, be written on stamped forms ("blanke"), which can be obtained at the offices of the Inland Revenue Department.

Forms of Russian Bills

The following are various forms of Russian bills.

Simple bill of exchange running from the date of issue to another fixed date (if the bill is in a foreign tongue, the equivalent of the words "bill of exchange" must be used)—

Bill ("veksel") for -----Roubles.

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19-----

Three months after this date I bind myself to pay on this Bill of Exchange to----- (insert name and surname, profession or calling of payee) of the town of----- (so many) Roubles (sum in writing).

Signature-----

(name, patronymic and surname, profession or calling.)

Form of a simple bill of exchange payable at sight, with a special term mentioned for presentation for payment—

Bill for-----*Roubles.*

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19-----

On the presentation on the 1st Feb., 19-----*(or during*
three months) of this Bill I bind myself-----
 (name, etc., as above of payee) *to pay in the town of*
 -----*(so many) Roubles (in writing).*

Signature-----*(as above).*

Form of a simple bill of exchange (promissory note) indicating a special payee—

Bill for-----*Roubles.*

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19-----

After-----*months from this date I bind myself to*
pay on this Bill to-----*(name, etc., as*
 above) *in the town of*-----*through*-----
 (name, etc., of payee)-----*(so many) Roubles (sum*
in writing).

Signature-----*(as above).*

Form of a draft due on presentation—

Bill for-----*Roubles.*

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19-----

On presentation of this Bill pay-----*(name,*
 etc., as above)-----*(so many) Roubles (in writing),*
in the town of-----

Signature of person issuing the draft-----
Vocation, name of family of payer-----

Form of a draft running from the date it was drawn to a certain time—

Draft for _____ Roubles.

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19_____

_____ months from this date pay on this Draft
 _____ (name, etc., as above) in the
 town of _____ (so many) Roubles (in writing).
 Signature of drawer _____
 Vocation, etc., of payer _____

Form of a draft, payment due on notification—

Bill for _____ Roubles.

Petrograd, 24th Nov., 19_____

_____ months after this date, on this Bill of
 Exchange pay _____ (name, etc., as
 above) _____ Roubles, in the town of _____
 Payment on my notification.
 Signature of drawer _____
 Vocation, etc., of payer _____

Form of transferred payment (indorsement)—

(A)

In my place pay Ivan Ivanoff, Merchant of Moscow,
 Kharkoff, 20th Nov., _____ (signature), or
 without referring to me pay to Theodor Stepanoff, 2nd
 Guild Merchant of Petrograd.
 Moscow, 1st Jan., 19___

Peter Petroff.

(B)

Petrograd Merchant, Peter Petrovitch Kapetanoff surety
 for the Merchant Mechail Mechailovitch, I vouch.
 Signed _____ Aleksei Ivanovitch Kapetanoff,
 Commoner of Petrograd.

Bills Drawn Abroad

Bills of exchange drawn abroad are legal in Russia if they comply with the laws of the country of their origin. Any bills drawn abroad, either by a Russian subject or by an alien, which comply with the provisions of the present law, are valid in Russia. The legal holder of a bill is the person who is in possession of it, provided that he is the payee mentioned in it, or that he holds it through a continuous chain of indorsements. (*Russian Year-Book.*)

Acknowledgment of advance received—

*May 7th, 191_, between me and the undersigned,
-----an agreement has been made concerning
the sale of my property, free of every tax and prohibition,
viz., real estate, being a house, a plot of land, etc., for
-----Roubles, on the condition that all expenses on
the signing of the purchase deed will be taken over by me.
As an advance on this sale I have received from him
-----Roubles; as an assurance of this I have
given him this receipt of acknowledgment.*

Dishonoured Bills

In Poland (where the Russian code does not obtain) practically every bill is in the end discounted by the Government State Bank, where a strict record is kept. Any person who does not honour his accepted bill finds it impossible to re-establish his credit, except under special circumstances.

Renewal of Promissory Notes

The British Consul at Kharkoff, a great agricultural centre, writes as follows, with special reference

to promissory notes renewable at six-monthly intervals up to the termination of the sales credit : " The class of bank credit which I have particularly in mind is an account current (book) credit, secured by the deposit of promissory notes. No other documents are required in obtaining such a credit. This kind of credit, which differs from the ordinary discounting of bills, is generally limited to firms of high standing. Where the firm offers sufficient guarantee for the money advanced, a deposit is accepted in other than the legal form of the promissory note ; such as, for instance, an account signed by the payee that the amount will be paid on a certain date, or the acknowledgment of a date by a County Council (Zemstvo) which has no legal right to give promissory notes." (For further details see the *Russian Year-Book*, 1915.)

" When a bill is not paid upon presentation, it must be protested, to enable the holders to sue the parties liable for the bill. In the event of a protest not being made, the indorsers are released from all liability ; the holder can in that case claim payment from the drawer only, with 6 per cent. yearly interest from the date when the proceedings were begun. When a bill is lost, the person who loses it may apply to the proper court for an order forbidding the drawer, acceptor, or payer to make any payment whatever on the bill." (*Russian Year-Book*.)

CHAPTER XII

THE BALTIC PROVINCES AND POLAND

THE previously mentioned regulations relating to the bankruptcy proceedings apply also to the Baltic Provinces—the Russian Governments of Esthland, Lifland, and Courland. It is advisable to employ a lawyer to watch over the interests of any creditor residing abroad. The bankruptcy is first announced in the journal of the Petrograd Senates, in the more interested Government publications, and in the German *Petrograder Zeitung* and *Riga Börsenblatt*. The notice of a claim on the bankrupt's estate should be in the Russian language, and duly stamped, but need not be witnessed by a notary-public. On the other hand, supplementary documents, such as bills, contracts, extracts from books, etc., should be attested by a notary and legalised by the Russian Consul.

In these provinces an unusual legal form, called the "Beitreibungsverfahren," is employed when several creditors simultaneously demand an execution on the same property belonging to one and the same debtor, and when the amount realised on it by auction does not suffice to cover claims. In this case, the executive official is bound to hand over to the District Court ("Okrooshny Ssud") the amount obtained from the sale of effects and the court then undertakes the distribution; in

this case, other creditors will be able to make their claims heard within the course of six weeks. No announcements are made concerning these proceedings; the local agents are, therefore, of assistance here.

Poland

The special legal statutes based on the Code Napoleon hold good in certain circumstances in the ten Governments which constitute Russian Poland. A person here can only be made a bankrupt by means of a dishonoured bill. In order to enforce an open debt a summons must be taken out and attended to personally, or by an authorised legal representative. In addition to notices of bankruptcy in the public papers, the creditors should receive written notification from the curator appointed by the court; but he often neglects this in the case of creditors resident abroad. On the fifteenth day after the declaration of bankruptcy a trustee ("syndikas") for the estate is chosen. This time limit is the most important thing in the whole course of proceedings; for should no creditor be present, the case is annulled the very same day, or at the next term, which generally follows within ten or fifteen days. This decision can often be made use of by creditors residing in the immediate neighbourhood to come to a separate settlement.

For the notification of creditors there are two periods of respite to be observed: forty days if they are residing in the country, and four months

when it is proved by the debtor's books that there are also foreign creditors.

The final proceedings, at which one must be present in person or by a representative, and before which notices of all claims must be made, then acknowledges the claims, and a protocol in Russian is drawn out.

In the event of any interested English or American exporter obtaining notice of suspension of payment or bankruptcy in Poland, he should immediately place himself in communication with a Polish lawyer. The British Consul on the spot should be consulted if necessary by wire, and requested to recommend a suitable agent. If the amount in danger is below 150 roubles, it does not pay to go to law in Poland, owing to the great expense and lawyers' fees; for in the majority of instances the successful litigant must also pay a share of the costs. In addition to this there are costs of translation and of legalisation.

Special Study Necessary

The dissimilar conditions obtaining in Russian Poland make a special study of that market absolutely necessary to those who wish to establish themselves there. Linguistically, and in many other respects, the land is extremely different from the rest of the Empire. Agents are to be found for every branch of trade, their chief aim being to exercise a due control over the solidity of buyers. Care with both agents and buyers is advisable,

but the opportunities are excellent, and worth attention.

For machinery and agricultural implements there are several good firms, agricultural societies, etc. Advertisements should always be published in the Polish tongue; but should there be no printed matter in this language, French must be used. The language of the country, however, is indispensable if close relations are to be encouraged. The translating and printing ought to be done in Warsaw.

The principal papers are the *Kurjer Warszawski*, *Warschaffski Dnevnik* (the official organ), and *The Moment*, a Jewish paper. In Lodz, the *Neue Lodzer Zeitung* is in German.

In choosing a representative, special attention must be paid to the circle of customers required. It is best to select a substantial Polish firm for goods which are intended for landowners and the agricultural classes. For household articles, ironware, and textiles, a good Jewish firm is the most suitable.

The Lithuanian Governments of Vilna, Kovno, Grodno, Bjelystock, and Minsk can be worked from Warsaw with advantage. The trade of Warsaw extends a long way into the interior of South-west Russia, and is chiefly in the hands of the energetic and enterprising Polish Jew. The city and its environs form the centre of important industries based on the supply of goods to the interior of Russia, the textile and hardware trade being the

most extensive. There are also factories for the production of cheaper agricultural implements ; these, however, are generally for tilling the soil, not for gathering in the harvest. English manufacturers of agricultural goods have a profitable field of activity in Poland and South Russia if they make Warsaw their centre.

In selling on credit, the greatest care must be observed ; payment on account should be demanded before the goods are sent off whenever the purchaser is not sufficiently well known. Claims on private persons cease to hold after the lapse of a year, and liability to payment for the indorsement on bills expires 14 days after they have been protested.

The great Russian banks have branches in the city.

Hotels : Bristol, Hotels de l'Europe and de France, etc.

Notary : Waldemar Fischer, Senatorska 36.

CHAPTER XIII

PETROGRAD AND MOSCOW

Petrograd

THE British Embassy is on the Palace Quay, at the corner of the Souvoroff Square ; the consulate is on the Vasilii Ostroff. Consul : A. W. Woodhouse, Volkoffsky Perioolok, 2. Vice-consul : C. H. Mackie. Secretary : G. Dobson, former correspondent of *The Times*, and one of the best known English authorities on Russia. The Commercial Attaché will be found at the Embassy. The address of the Anglo-Russian Chamber of Commerce is 4 Gorochovaja.

The Bureau, from which the address of any firm or private person can be obtained by return of post, is at 58 Sadofvaja (telephone 37). A post card can be obtained at any tobacconist's on which the name of the firm or person must be written in French or Russian ; this must be posted to the Bureau.

Messengers can be obtained by request from the hotel porter ; they are also to be seen at the corners of the chief streets, generally distinguished by red caps. Charges are moderate.

"Droshkies," taxis, and other vehicles are seen everywhere, for the Russians dislike much pedestrian exercise. A fixed scale of fares is in operation, but, as a rule, the drivers ignore it,

preferring to bargain with the passenger. It is best to give them about half their demand, with a small gratuity (tea-money) if they have given satisfaction.

Credit, and the necessary business information, is easily obtained in Petrograd. All the large banks have offices in the city, the principal ones being the following—

Russian and English Bank, 28 Nevsky Prospekt.
Boulton & Co., 6 Admiralty Quay.

Russian Bank for Foreign Trade, Grand Morskaja.
Northern Bank, Nevsky Prospekt.

Volga Kama Bank (for business with the Volga Governments).

Credit Lyonnais, Nevsky Prospekt and Vasilii Ostroff.

International Bank.

State Bank.

There are many great firms, with branches in the more important commercial centres; but to hand over sole rights of control to one house, for the whole Empire (as has often been done), is only advisable in exceptional cases; the Empire is far too vast for such a course. If the intended business, for instance, has to do with agriculture, the capital is by no means the suitable place. Such a step is only reasonable when the business has to do with the Government. With regard to losses caused by dishonest firms, communication with the consulate while the facts are being cleared up by the court, is recommended. Debt collecting is

undertaken by several firms. Reliable Notary : Mr. Holm, Nevsky Prospekt.

CHIEF HOTELS : Europe, Astoria, Angleterre, France ; Hotel du Nord (opposite the Nicholas Railway Station) ; The Grand, Gogol St. In normal times, the price of an excellent lunch or breakfast in the second-class hotels is about 1s. 6d. ; dinner from one to two roubles, with coffee. A five-course dinner can be had for 60 copecks, but cannot be recommended. The Petrograd water should not be drunk unless boiled. Restaurants, in which food and cooking are good : " Medvjed " (Bear), Konushnaja 27 ; Albert, Police Bridge, Moika Canal ; Cuba, Morskaja ; Donan, Morskaja ; Contan, Moika 58 ; Pivato (first-class Italian), Morskaja 36 ; Ernest, Kamennyostroffsky 60 ; Leiner (famous for good beer), Nevsky 18 ; The Vienna, Gogol St. 13 ; Palkin (Russian) Nevsky 17. There are many cafés and confectioners, Philippoff's, Nevsky 45, and the Polsky Café, Mechailoffskaja, being among the best.

The General Post and Telegraph Offices are on the Potchtantskaja, near the Anglo-American Chapel. The cost of a telegram in Russia and Siberia is 5 copecks per word ; the tax is 15 copecks for European Russia, and 10 copecks per word for wires to and from European and Asiatic Russia. Town telegrams, 1 copeck per word. Telegrams to Great Britain cost 18 copecks per word ; to America, 73. The offices are open day and night ; the officials are highly educated, usually conversant

with French, English, and German. Local time is about two hours later than Greenwich. It usually takes from one to two hours for a telegram to reach London.

The fare to Petrograd, 1st class, by Wilson Line *via* Kiel Canal, is £5, return £7. Fare by rail *via* Berlin, from £10 to £15. By the ordinary train, 1st class fare is about £9 10s.; 2nd class, £6 10s. (*via* Flushing); return, 1st, about £18 10s.; 2nd, about £12 6s. Approximate fares are given, as after the war there may be modifications. The *Russian Year-Book* will give further details. The offices of the International Sleeping Car Company are on the Nevsky Prospekt 24.

The chief railway stations are: Nicholaieffsky (for Moscow), Znamensky Square; Varshaffsky (for Warsaw and abroad), Obvodny Canal; Baltisky (for Warsaw and Riga); and the Finlandsky (for Viborg and Helsingfors), on the Viborg Side, across the river. All information as to passports should be ascertained before starting from the Russian Consuls and Vice-consuls in England, or from the Passport Department of Cook's.

Petrograd was founded by Peter the Great, and named by him Saint Peterbourg, after his patron saint, and as a compliment to his friends in Holland, where he had learnt the arts of ship and city building. It is built on twenty islands, the Vasilii Ostroff, the Aptekarsky, the Petrogradsky, and Petroffsky being the four largest. To the north of the city are the Sestoretsk rifle works; east are the Scheremetieff

powder factories, and up the river, the Ochta picrine works. All along the Ochta are numerous English, Russian, German, and other factories and mills. Southward lies Sieversky, noted for its glass works. The city contains many mills, iron-works, ship-yards, cotton and cloth mills, full particulars of which can be obtained from the Chamber of Commerce.

There are three English churches : the Chapel of the Embassy, on the English Quay ; the Anglo-American Chapel, near the Post Office ; and the English Church at Alexandroffsky, on the Schlusselfburg Road. On the Vasilii Ostroff is a home for English governesses. Details can be obtained by writing to the British chaplain. Englishmen wishing to visit Petrograd should write to the Secretary of the New English Club, No. 36, Petrograd. Other interesting material may be found in *Petrograd Past and Present* (Grant Richards, 1916), which contains an account of the city from its beginnings, and has much information for tourists and travellers.

N.B.—Much valuable information concerning Petrograd and its trade may be found in the *Russian Year-Book* and *Souvoriu's Calendar* for 1917.

(W. B. S.)

Moscow

Moscow is the centre of a great number of business undertakings, and its trade lies with Central Russia, Western Siberia, Central Asia, and Persia, and Northern China. The great tea trade with China

and Mongolia, to London and Hamburg, is carried on by the wealthy merchants of Moscow. Southern Russia and the Lesser Caucasus are worked from this city ; but, in general, the sole sale for a too large expanse of territory should not be allowed in single hands. Most Moscow firms are inclined to demand this favour, but with the development of communication and the increase of education, decentralisation is becoming more and more apparent, and towns in other parts of the country are forming new starting-points for the extension of trade in their respective districts. For example, to leave a Moscow firm the right of sales for Poland and the Baltic Provinces is evidently an error, judging merely from geographical reasons ; yet there are not wanting instances of foreign houses that have made this mistake. The South-western and Southern Governments cannot, as a rule, be worked from Moscow with advantage, unless an unusually large firm, which has its own branch offices in Odessa and Kieff, chooses to do so, or for financial reasons such an arrangement covering the whole Empire simultaneously seems desirable.

The best known expediting houses are : Paul Forestoffsky, Miljutinsky Lane ; Gerard & Hey (who have agents in London), 15 B. Lubjanka ; Kniep & Werner, Mjasnitskaja 11 ; Loewe & Seydler, Mjasnitskaja 13.

Solicitors should be recommended by the consulate. Among the best names are those of A. Grave, Granitzky Pereoolsk, and J. A. Luther.

There are many agencies managed by foreigners ; the chief English firms are Muir & Merrilees, Knoops, Hopper & Son, and Toulmin & Smith. The first-class English houses can safely be dealt with. The British colony in Moscow, though not so numerous as that of Petrograd, is extremely well to do. It is of considerable antiquity, and first came into existence during the reign of Ivan the Terrible, who gave the British merchants in Moscow and Archangel every encouragement in order to diminish the power of the German traders of the Hanseatic League.

(C. E. W. P.)

CHAPTER XIV

ODESSA AND RIGA

Odessa

THE working of the South Russian markets is attended with far greater difficulties than the rest of Russia. This opinion is borne out by the German, Austrian, and Swedish consular reports. At the same time it must be remembered that Southern Russia has relatively a much greater need of all kinds of goods than the rest of the country. This depends partly on the density of the population, partly on the comparative prosperity of the people owing to the rich agricultural activity and the industries—especially the production of sugar from beetroot. Conditions should be studied on the spot, and attention paid to the differences obtaining in the district. Direct opening out of business with the prospective customer, especially in retail trade, is not to be recommended; the great exporters abroad all work together with the help of local agents, who also, if they are suitable, deal with the surrounding Governments, and in some cases the whole of South Russia.

Odessa is Russia's largest seaport and emporium for the trade of the South. As regards export statistics, Odessa compares well with the surrounding towns; their commerce lies in the hands of

Odessa's business houses, and reinforces her total till it is above that of any other Russian town.

In choosing a local agent, to whom sole right of control is to be given, the greatest care is necessary. One should be especially on guard against agents who themselves offer their services, and who bring in other firms belonging to the same clique. Information bureaux may be found in Odessa, but those who desire to obtain information from such agencies should remember what has already been said on this matter.

All the important banking houses have offices here. The private banks are : Bank Aschenagi, and Banker Brodski,

The import of machinery to and through Odessa is the largest in the whole Empire, especially if we take into consideration that concerned in agriculture. Various English, American, and German firms, known throughout the world, have offices here under the management of almost independent representatives. The finest American harvesting machines come into the country through this port, and at the time of writing American companies have stores which employ hundreds of men. Roughly speaking, the trade in machinery is divided thus : The Americans supply harvesting machinery, the English that for threshing and cleaning the grain (including locomotives and all driving gears), and the Germans implements for working the land. The Swedes are first in the supply of separators ; of the 6,000 milk separators

which, in 1913, were exported from Germany to Russia, there is every reason to believe that the greater number remained in South Russia, owing to the many German colonies there, where German machines had already obtained a firm hold. The German trade owes much of its success to the methods of credit used. The Germans studied the markets *on the spot*, and came to the conclusion that there are no grounds for refusing credit when desired.

The most important newspapers, read by all classes, are: the *Odessa Novosti*, circulation about 30,000; *Ushnaja Krai*, 24,000; and the *Odessky Listok*, 24,000. There are also two papers in the German language, intended for the German colonists, descendants of the settlers invited by Catherine II from Saxony, Switzerland, Moldavia, and other European States. There are thousands of these colonists; they have kept their own language, customs, and religion for almost two hundred years. They are found principally in Poland, Little Russia, and the Volga Governments.

Advertisement by means of price lists, catalogues, and the sending of printed bills is customary. It is generally wise in these matters to follow the advice of local agents. The well-known forwarding firm, Gerard & Hey, have an office in the city. Notary: Dr. W. Danachevsky, Rue Gogol 14. Hotels: de Londres (Londonskaja), de l'Europe, Bristol.

Riga

There is a paid British Consul in this city, V. C. H. Bosanquet, who will, in all probability, be happy to be of service to Englishmen desirous of particulars as to starting business in the Baltic Provinces. The business life of Riga does not differ so much from that of Western Europe as that of other Russian commercial towns. German is the principal language. In order to gain a foothold on the Russian market, Riga can be exceedingly useful as a base of operations. There are many agents and importers of all kinds of goods, but most of them work within the range of the three Baltic Provinces, the purchasing power of which, with a population relatively poor, must not be over-rated.

Information bureaux concerning credit, which also undertake debt collecting, exist, as well as a number of substantial banking establishments. The Russian Bank for Foreign Trade, which has a branch in this city, can be recommended; it, as well as other banks, will furnish information to clients well known.

In advertising, judgment should be used, according to the class of customers desired: the town and country populations, the German-speaking inhabitants, the Letts, Russians, and Jews all need different treatment. The peasant class mainly consists of Letts; their paper in Riga is the *Dshitenes Westnichs*; the favourite organs of the German-speaking portion are the *Rigasche*

Rundschau, the *Rigasche Zeitung*, and the *Baltische Wochenschrift*.

The Governments of Kovno, Grodno, Suvalki, and even Vilna and Minsk, are usually worked from Riga, but as a rule the medium-sized firms do not operate farther afield. There are large industrial undertakings in the environs which deal with the whole of Russia.

Notaries : Freytag & Lornighoven, Andrestraat 5.

Hotels : de Rome, St. Petersburg, Monopole, etc.

(C. E. W. P.)

CHAPTER XV

REVAL, LIBAU, KIEFF, ETC.

Reval

ETHNOGRAPHICALLY, and as regards trade, Esthland constitutes a territory which cannot always be worked with advantage from Riga; there are difficulties in finding suitable firms to act as agents only for this district. The few reliable houses are already much occupied with older commercial ties. There is an agricultural union called the "Esthland Nobles' Union." For advertising, the *Revaler Zeitung* and the *Revaler Beobachter* are good; there are, moreover, several papers in the Esthonian language.

The harbour of Reval has been enlarged, and improvements on an extensive scale for the accommodation of the Russian Fleet are now under construction. It is practically free of ice, while Riga, in spite of its famous ice-breaker, built in Sweden, is closed for several months in the year. The voyage between Stockholm and Reval takes much less time than that between Stockholm and Riga; and Reval has this advantage—it stands in direct railway communication with the whole of Northern Russia and Siberia, and a new direct line connecting it with Southern Russia is planned. The major portion of the import trade of Petrograd during the winter passes through Reval.

The Banking House Scheel furnishes information to customers. Hotel: St. Petersburg. There is regular steamboat communication between Hull, Reval, and Riga by means of the Wilson Line.

Libau

The English Consul will give all needful information. A union of the Courland landowners, called the "Consumverein," is the most important local purchaser of everything used in agriculture. According to the consular reports, the supply much exceeds the demand, and unnecessary losses have been caused. Therefore, it is advisable to obtain most detailed data before granting any credit here; when the amount advanced is considerable there is risk.

Forwarding agents: Dietrich Heydeman. Paper for advertising, the *Libauische Zeitung*.

Kieff

What has been written about Odessa as regards general business usages, can be applied to Kieff without modification. Kieff is the centre of Russia's sugar industry. A highly developed science of agriculture, with an unusually fertile tillage land, gives most valuable opportunities. Besides sugar and grain, Kieff is the buying centre for bran, tobacco, eggs, seed cakes, etc., but in the last-mentioned goods a properly organised business hardly exists. Thus to a large extent the purchasing takes place through petty traders and middlemen

buying up the stores on various estates, and from the peasants frequently in advance, by lending them money. Great care is necessary in dealing with these small traders, and direct business relations with them should be avoided. Without the help of a reliable agent no business should be started.

In the machinery trade there are many English, German, and Swiss firms of good standing. Moreover, the best Bohemian factories have their own stores in Kieff. These, and the above houses, have their own interests to look after, while this rich region has been very little worked by English firms. Every February the so-called "contracts" take place—meetings for the settling of the various businesses connected with the sugar industry.

The Russian Bank for Foreign Trade, the International Bank of Commerce, and other important concerns, have offices here.

Hotels: Continental, Grand, de l'Europe, France, etc.

The journey from Kieff to Odessa takes eleven hours.

Charkoff (Kharkoff)

Business relations here are best formed by means of a personal visit. There are several large import and wholesale firms dealing with almost every variety of article, and a great demand exists for agricultural machinery, power engines of all kinds, items of domestic utility, tools, metals, and electric

lamps. Energetic and dependable agents are in request, but there are districts which have an extensive and, as regards credit, a good purchasing capacity, which have not been much worked. This also applies to many other parts of Russia that still await development. The American machinery firms conduct their business through their own branch offices, or with the help of highly-paid permanent representatives. English or American houses which intend to take over this market should possess a certain amount of capital and keep on hand a collection of samples.

For advertising, the *Ushny Kraj* has the best circulation. The Kharkoff Agricultural Society publishes its own trading journal.

Hotels: Grand Hotel, Prosher, Kieff, etc.

N.B.—One of the best and oldest firms for agricultural machinery before the war was Messrs. Hume & Lister, of Kharkoff.

Rostoff-on-Don

This region is known as the "Granary of Russia." Here is the beginning, but only the beginning, of an immense future trade. Rostoff has behind it, in the Northern Caucasus (the Kuban), a region of the greatest importance commercially, rich in all field produce peculiar to the South of Russia. Wheat, Indian corn, buckwheat, millet, tobacco, fruit, grapes, grow here in abundance. The finest Turkish tobacco comes from the Kuban, and is generally cultivated by Greeks, who rent the land

from the wealthy Cossacks of the Stanitze—their settlement.

There should be a great opportunity for English capital and enterprise in these fertile lands; at present development is retarded through lack of water and lack of money.

The machinery industry here is exclusively concerned with agriculture. Substantial buyers are to be found; but in most instances they are of the “purely Russian” kind, and no business man should visit Rostoff without some knowledge of the language.

The *Priazoffsky Kraj* is the best paper. Advertisements in the form of printed circulars and posters in the Russian tongue are useful.

Several important places can easily be reached from Rostoff—Armivar, Stavropol, Techarjetskaja; the flourishing port of Novorossisk on the Black Sea is another town specially to be remembered on account of its fine position as port of discharge for goods intended for the Caucasus and the southern basin of the Volga, also for the purchase of grain, linseed cakes, etc. This thriving port owes its origin mainly to the remarkable activity of the celebrated Polish railway engineer, Stanislaus Ippolitovitch Kerbedz, under whose direction the harbour was constructed, with its enormous piers and American elevators. Thanks to these, Novorossisk, once a small fishing village, has now a larger grain trade than the capital. By means of the Techorjetsk railway, it also absorbs a

considerable portion of the grain trade of the Volga.

There is an English Consul here, and the port is open all the year round. Hotels : Rossija, Bellevue, etc. The fares on the railways here are very moderate, and the wine, fruit, meat, and game that can be procured at the stations are as excellent in quality as they are reasonable in price.

(C. E. W. P.) & (W. B. S.)

CHAPTER XVI

BAKU AND THE CAUCASUS

Baku

THIS great centre of the petroleum industry has an English Consul, and many English firms are interested in the exploitation of the rich petroleum beds of the district. Owing to the enterprise of the Nobels and other Swedish firms, Baku has become a centre for the sale of motors, compressed air machines, machines for dressing stone, and many other articles related to the petroleum trade. Many a tank steamer of excellent build has been constructed in Sweden or England for oil-carrying on the Caspian, and brought down the Volga in sections to Astrachan and Baku. Both of these towns employ a regular fleet.

Since the opening of the Grosni and Maikop oil-fields, millions of British capital have been sunk here. Machinery, pumps, etc., and appliances used in the oil trade should find a good market.

In Nicolaieff, Taganrog, and Batoum, which have a big trade with England, there are English Consuls, also many firms which might act as agents or importers of British goods. The first two ports import goods from England, as well as ship grain, seed cakes, etc. Batoum is the terminus and port of the Transcaspian Railway. A large fleet of steamers plies on the Caspian between Batoum,

Astrachan, and the ports of Northern Persia. Many of these are owned by wealthy Persian and Armenian merchants.

The Caucasus

Although, strictly speaking, a portion of Asia, the Caucasus has in recent years been brought into close contact with the West, and we may almost reckon it as a part of Russia in Europe. This beautiful country is the Colchis of the ancient Greeks, and a rich land, which, properly administered, could compete with France, England, or Italy in resources and grandeur of scenery.

The Caucasus is divided into six Governments, and five Provinces: Stavropol, Terek, Dagistan, the Provinces of the Black Sea, Kutaiesk, Tiflis, Elizavetapol, Baku, Erzesan, and Kars—territories which formerly belonged to Persia or Turkey. The northern part consists mostly of rich steppe land and forests of deciduous trees. Forests, and even plantations, abandoned by their inhabitants, hide bears, wild boar, wild cats and goats, the aurochs, and other animals. About 400 different varieties of birds are found in the Caucasus. Pheasants, Persian nightingales, and many lovely coloured birds abound. The soil is fertile.

The inhabitants are interesting; nowhere have I seen such fine types of humanity, men and women. Besides the Russian conquerors, we find Caucasians, Lesbians, Armenians, Tartars, Germans, Jews, and many other races. The unfortunate Armenians,

who are detested, and with whom the Jews can hardly compete, have monopolised most of the trade of the country ; for the pure Caucasians, being mountaineers, warriors, and agriculturists, despise commerce, regarding it as *infra dig.*

Gold, silver, manganese, copper, sulphur, and iron are found ; also coal of the finest quality, said to equal that of Newcastle. The richest petroleum wells are in this country ; the oil-fields of Baku, Maikop, and Grosni are now so well known that it is superfluous to do more than allude to them. Siberia and Saghalien also have unexploited oil-fields.

On the Black Sea coast are enormous deposits of natural cement, which could be exported were there not so large a demand for it within Russia itself.

Tiflis is the most important town ; it has a mixed population of Europeans and Asiatics, and an enormous trade. All who desire trade in the Caucasus should visit this place, where representatives of almost every industry can be found. A famous wine—Kachetensky—is made in this Government ; Caucasian wines have already been exported to Bordeaux for the purpose of strengthening the French wines, and will probably find their way to England before long. Wheat and other grain is plentiful, and in Turkestan cotton is cultivated on a large scale, so that in a few years Russia should be independent of imported cotton.

It is probable that Russia will open her doors to

foreign enterprise more freely in the near future. As the Government is not particularly flush of money owing to the war, they may favourably entertain business applications, and British capitalists will not have to suffer so many annoyances from officialdom, though they may have to overcome their native dislike to a system of bribery before much business can be done.

(W. B. S.)

The Wine Trade in Russia

The area of cultivated vines in Russia is about 6,800,000 acres, which is more than the whole of vineyards in Europe, but for various reasons the production is not important. As a rule, excepting in the Crimea and Transcaucasia, the low temperature in winter compels growers to incline the vines towards the ground and to cover them with earth about 4 to 12 inches deep, in order to protect them.

There is a great difference among the wines, as a result of the extreme variety in climatic conditions, of the nature of soil, and of the various methods of vine-growing and wine-making. First of all come the ordinary clarets; though the production in liqueurs is increasing somewhat in some districts, as in the Crimea, Transcaucasia, and Turkestan. Every locality produces the so-called "Church wine," sweet claret weighing 18 deg. and made especially for communion, after the orthodox rite; this kind of wine is often adulterated. The Don

district, where the Cossacks introduced the vine on their return from the French campaign of 1813-1814, produces a very sweet, sparkling wine.

Turkestan sells great quantities of dry raisins, of which there are two brands: "kishmishee" (black and white) and "karshee"; the former, seedless, are like currants, the latter resemble Malaga raisins.

Russian wine-growers assert that their clarets made in Bessarabia, North Taurida, Kherson, the Kuban, round Novorossisk, in Kakhetia, etc., are of the best quality.

Russian vines have been wasted by the phylloxera, which appeared in the Empire about 1880. Energetic measures have driven it out of Crimea, but Bessarabia and the Caucasus have not yet been cleansed. The worst districts are Bessarabia, Tiflis and Podolia.

In order to get rid of it, the Government twenty years ago founded nursery gardens of American vines, the total production of which is now 12,000,000 grafted slips. Other nursery gardens have been founded by the Bessarabian and Khersonian zemstvos, and by some Caucasian municipalities and private persons.

Phylloxera, however, is growing so speedily that the newly contaminated areas are wider than the improved ones. The Board of Agriculture, therefore, in order to check it, are considering several new measures, such as premiums, tax remissions, vine-growers' loans, etc.

Nearly the whole of the Russian wine produced is consumed within the Empire, where it popularises the taste for wine, for customs duties prevent the imports of ordinary and of mixing wines. *First-class wines only can bear the Russian import duties.*

Russian imports in 1909 and 1910 were as follows—

Wines made of grapes, berries, or fruit, up to 13° strength	1909 1910		1909 1910	
	(1,000 lb.)		(values)	
	6,000	7,500	£303,000	£347,000
Wines of 13° to 16° strength	1,770	1,740	£110,000	£10,300
Wines of 16° to 25° „	1,000	930	£88,600	£89,400

So far, particulars as to the countries from which wine is imported have not been published. All that can be ascertained is that in 1910 Russian purchases in wines and spirits were from France, 12,080,000 lb., for £941,000, against from Germany, 7,500,000 lb., for £456,000 (including many foreign wines entered as German ones).—*From a French Consular Report.*

CHAPTER XVII

THE URAL REGION

THIS comprises the Governments of Vjatka, Perm, Orenburg, and Ufa, the mountainous districts, and the surrounding territories corresponding to the Russian division into Governments.

Among the fifty Governments of European Russia, Perm is the third and Orenburg the fifth, reckoned by superficial area, the two being equal to the whole peninsula of Scandinavia ; the population in these Provinces amounts to about 13,000,000. In the towns of Ekaterinburg, Perm, there should be no difficulty in finding English representatives, owing to the great total of British capital sunk in the mining centres of the Ural. Omitting the densely wooded portions, and a few other districts, it may be said that the mining and allied industries far exceed agriculture, and form the people's chief means of subsistence.

The land belongs, with few exceptions, to the village communes ; individual farming has not yet been seriously begun. In Vjatka, Perm, and Ufa, rye and oats are cultivated ; in Orenburg, wheat comes first ; in Ufa, flax and hemp appear on a large scale, also sunflowers, for the sake of their oil, used in seed-cakes. Throughout the whole of the South, thousands of acres are used for growing sunflowers, the seeds being eaten by the peasants

as we eat nuts ; they are also used for fattening poultry. The oil, which is very nourishing, can be burnt in lamps, and employed for many other purposes. Vjatka is noted for its hop-gardens ; clover and timothy-grass are cultivated in Perm, the seeds being exported. Artificial manure is coming into use in most of the Northern Governments ; in the South (the Ukraine) the black soil is so rich that it is seldom required.

Forest Wealth

The forest wealth is enormous ; millions of acres are wooded, and only half is said to belong to the Crown. The exploitation of this source of revenue is badly managed. Charcoal-making interests the inhabitants, but in recent years several saw-mills have been built.

The districts of Ekaterinburgsk and Verchotarjisk, Perm, are the richest in minerals. Gold, platinum, silver, copper, nickel, lead, and quicksilver are found. Copper occurs in very large quantities in Bogostoosk, Sysertsck, and Kyschtym. It is believed that large beds of coal exist, but of rather poor quality with about 6 per cent. of sulphur. Sulphur itself occurs in profitable beds, also asbestos. The metallurgical development is concentrated in the eastern part of the Government of Perm, and at Zlataosk, in Ufa. The milling industry is important ; nor should the spirit distilleries, breweries, and leather factories be forgotten.

Perm, with 65,000 inhabitants, although the seat

of the Governor, is behind Ekaterinburg, with 75,000, not only in population but in the extent of its trade and commerce. By means of the Northern Railway it is in communication with Petrograd, and with Reval *via* Vjatka and Vologda. It has the advantage of an exceedingly busy steamboat traffic with all the Volga towns by means of the river Kama. These steamers are excellent, some of the stern-wheelers being as luxurious as those on the great American rivers; in fact, many of them are named after those highways—the *Arkansas*, *Mississippi*, *Missouri*, and so on.

Two markets are held each year at Perm, at which household items and iron goods form the principal articles of sale. Four versts from the city is a large foundry belonging to the Crown, the town adjoining having a population of about 20,000.

The best known paper is the *Permskaja Vjedemosti*. The Bureau of Engineers (Permskij Buro Insheeneroff) sells technical articles, machines, etc.

Ekaterinburg is the junction for several railways, and lies at the centre of the mining region; as a natural consequence the trade in tools and machinery is considerable. The future of this town is undoubtedly bright; it is also the centre of a steadily rising milling industry—the great Moscow firms of Erlanger, Davoria, and others, which specialise in mill machinery, have their local stores, and there are several large banks. The traffic in precious stones is of great importance. Polishing works for these, and the stone quarries giving

valuable gems, marble, malachite, porphyry, jasper, etc., are found in the neighbourhood, the sale of these goods taking place in the town. One of the most interesting sights here is the beautiful and well-arranged mineralogical museum.

In this district there are a number of thickly populated parishes. Nevjank, with about 30,000 inhabitants, is noted for its manufacture of the celebrated "sunduke" strong wooden boxes with iron ornamentation and binding. Kyschtim, population about 22,000, is one of the chief copper centres of the Urals, and Beresoffska, not far from Ekaterinburg, is one of the oldest gold mines in the mountains. Krasno-oofinsk lies about a hundred versts from the railway and from Kungur, and is a good market for the lighter kinds of agricultural machines, small hand separators, and implements; there are, however, few industries. The Mongolian type of the people here is very striking. Kungur, in a fertile region on the river Ufa, ships oats, rye, flax, and hemp. In the Krasno-oofinsk district are many large iron-works, also factories for agricultural articles, samovars, etc. Tschadrinsk, in the southern part, is situated about 100 versts from Ekaterinburg on the Tjumen Railway, and has about 15,000 inhabitants. A lively trade in grain is done here, as well as an increasing export of butter; this deserves the attention of travellers. There is also a milling industry.

Irbit is noted for its annual market or fair, which is second in fame only to that of Nishni-Novgorod.

The place is in reality nothing more than an overgrown village, the population being only 9,000 or 10,000; but during the fair, which lasts from 25th January to 1st March, it becomes a trading centre of the first magnitude, important not only to Russia but even to foreign countries. Here are made immense purchases of valuable furs, hides, leather, wool, tea, fish, and Oriental goods. The trade in furs alone is estimated to amount to 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 roubles. The gathering is attended by merchants from all parts of Russia, and even by some from other lands. Enormous sums are spent in gaiety by the visitors, as at the better known Nishni. Manufactured goods from Russia to foreign factories are sold for about 1,000,000 roubles, and the total turnover of European articles is set at about £3,500,000. As many of the sales are made simply according to patterns, the actual turnover at the Irbit fair must be much greater, and as transport and communication facilities improve, the significance of this market will certainly increase. During the fair, the great bankers have their own offices, newspapers are published, theatres and restaurants in the real Russian style flourish—only to be closed down when the fair is over. Then Irbit again returns to the dull life of a small and remote provincial town.

The Governments of Orenburg and Ufa (pronounced Oofa).—The first of these occupies an area of about 170,000 square versts. (A Russian

"oojezd," or district, is frequently as large as Holland and Belgium.) It is divided into five districts. Exceedingly hot summers are followed by cold and snowy winters. Agriculture is strongly developed, and a rich black virgin soil is met with almost everywhere, especially in the region round Tchelabinsk and Troitsk; but for the most part the ground has not been exploited, and the generally used "four field system" prevents a more intense development.

(C. E. W. P.)

CHAPTER XVIII

THE MINING INDUSTRIES OF THE URALS

ONE of the reasons for the backwardness of the Ural region in output of minerals was that the engineers sent from the Mining School of Petrograd to investigate and report, and afterwards appointed to positions in the Government mining ventures, formed among themselves a closed ring of officials hostile to modern methods and anxious to prevent every attempt to control production. The original supplies of timber, considered inexhaustible, which, owing to scarcity of coal, had to be used as fuel in the shape of charcoal for the smelting, at last began to be either insufficient or too distant from the works; the output then lessened, and about the year 1908 came a crisis which, happily, was to bring about many reforms.

No mining district in Europe can rival the Urals in the variety of treasure produced. In 1911, 10,100 kilogrammes of gold, 5,778 kilo. of platinum, 6,339 kilo. of silver, 98,000 kilo. of lead, 12,863,000 kilo. of copper, 718,000,000 kilo. of pig-iron, about 700,000,000 kilo. of coal, and 408,327,000 kilo. of table salt came from this wonderful region, the copper representing 51 per cent. of Russia's entire production. In normal times, Russia is certainly independent of imported copper.

In 1910 the mining experienced a notable

"boom," the like of which had never been known within the land, and from this "iron hunger," and other exciting influences, the industries of the Urals derived benefits which, on the whole, still make themselves felt. Statistics show that among other raw products, iron rose from 37·8 million poods in 1908 to about 50 million in 1912.

About 95 per cent. of the world's supply of platinum comes from the Urals. When we remember that the price of this rare metal is continually on the rise, it is easy to deduce what a rich source of revenue to the State is at hand. The largest platinum mines are worked by a company with French capital (*Compagnie Industrielle de Platine*) amounting to 20,000,000 francs, which owns forty "washings" in Verchoturje. On the Schouvaleff properties in the northern district of Perm there are still richer platinum washings, which produce about 100 poods a year. Thanks to the expert management the trade in this metal has fallen almost entirely into French hands. Large quantities, moreover, are obtained by illegal methods.

No rational method of working the nickel deposits of the Urals is in operation, but quicksilver, pyrites, asbestos, chrome, and phosphorite are available, and are sent down to the capital in barges by means of the Volga and the Mariensky Canal system. Another important branch of the mining is the working of the large deposits of quartz. The metallurgical works are generally in a position to meet their requirements of fire-proof stone from

their own material or from the Ural region. In 1909 more than 18,000,000 fire-proof bricks were produced in the Urals—about 1,750,000 poods. Layers of granite exist, but they are hardly worked at all, as little attention is at present paid to street paving in Russia. Cement is found, and factories have been erected in the Nevjansky-Zavod, in Simsky and Katov-Ivanoffsky, which produce more than is needed for local consumption ; hence it is necessary to find a market elsewhere. Marble of splendid quality occurs in Zlataoosk, and is polished for the market of Moscow ; the polishing substance, emery or corundum, is also found.

The diamond, topaz, beryl, aquamarine, amethyst, sapphire, and mountain crystal are found in the Province of Ekaterinburg, chiefly round the village of Marsinka. Part of the output is sold in Ekaterinburg, part bought up by the itinerant traders ; but persons who are not experts would be able to buy them as cheaply in London, or Petrograd, or Stockholm. (This observation also applies to furs.) Stones of lesser value (jasper, malachite, etc.) are polished, principally in the district of Ekaterinburg.

Ural Coal Production

The total production for 1911 amounted to 33,861,702 poods, the outputs of the respective collieries being as follows—

Rubakhin Collieries of Nazarov . . .	477,925 poods.
Tchussov Collieries of the Kama Co. . .	1,308,000 „
The Ussov Collieries of Berdinsk Bros. . .	2,848,000 „

Luniev Collieries of Demidov	9,404,508 poods.
Kizelov Collieries of Prince S. Abamelek-Lazarev	19,823,269 „

The same collieries produced, in 1910, 34,813,783 poods; in 1909, 42,727,600 poods; and in 1908, 47,825,015 poods. The reduction in the total output, compared with 1908, roughly amounting to 14,000,000 poods, was due to the reduced output of the Kizelov collieries, which produced, in 1908, 38,198,093 poods.

Ural Copper Smelters in 1911

The smelters produced, in 1911, 815,750 poods of copper, as compared with 612,361 poods in the preceding year. The outputs of the respective smelters were as follows—

Verkh-Isset Smeltery	79,840 poods.
Polev	70,586 „
Vysk	100,493 „
Kyshtim	134,924 „
Bogoslav	246,079 „
Soimakov	183,828 „

The combined output of those smelters during the preceding three years amounted, in 1908, to 520,644 poods; in 1909, to 494,303 poods; the increase in 1911 against 1910 is entirely due to the Soimakov Smelter coming into operation in 1911.

Ural Iron Works

	<i>Stock at the beginning of the year.</i>	<i>Output.</i>	<i>Stock at end of the year.</i>
PIG-IRON	POODS.	POODS.	POODS.
1911 .	15,990,000	44,867,000	11,206,000
1910 .	18,447,000	39,071,000	15,990,000

	<i>Stock at the beginning of the year.</i>	<i>Output.</i>	<i>Stock at end of the year.</i>
PIG-IRON— <i>contd.</i>	POODS.	POODS.	POODS.
1909 .	20,916,000	34,916,000	18,447,000
1908 .	23,153,000	35,837,000	20,916,000
1907 .	21,346,000	38,511,000	23,153,000
IRON & STEEL PRODUCERS (semi-finished)			
1911 .	4,196,000	47,988,000	4,091,000
1910 .	4,282,000	45,351,000	4,196,000
1909 .	4,707,000	41,777,000	4,282,000
1908 .	4,628,000	39,617,000	4,707,000
1907 .	4,004,000	36,602,000	4,628,000
IRON & STEEL (finished)			
1911 ..	8,156,000	37,171,000	8,076,000
1910 .	7,432,000	36,962,000	8,156,000
1909 .	8,340,000	33,595,000	7,432,000
1908 .	7,508,000	31,641,000	8,340,000
1907 .	7,456,000	30,306,000	7,508,000

Russian Cast-iron and Steel Production

	<i>Cast-iron.</i>	<i>Semi-finished Iron and Steel.</i>	<i>Finished Iron and Steel.</i>
	POODS.	POODS.	POODS.
1911 . .	219,074	241,057	202,702
1910 . .	185,595	216,293	184,168
1909 . .	175,296	191,218	162,870
1908 . .	171,073	174,833	147,562
1907 . .	171,995	173,196	148,213

Collieries of European Russia

The total production of the collieries in European Russia amounted to 1,618,210,000 poods in 1911, as compared with 1,061,300,000 poods in 1905. The respective production of the individual sections has been as follows, in million poods—

	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.
Donetz Collieries	1,060,53	1,093,23	1,089,50	1,018,78	1,209,71
Dombrova „	330,19	338,83	347,53	340,71	33,86
Ural „	42,68	45,74	42,73	34,81	360,40
Moscow District Col.	21,25	20,05	15,39	13,90	10,86
Caucasian Collieries	2,86	3,17	2,56	2,40	8,38
Totals	1,457,51	1,501,02	1,497,71	1,410,60	*1,618,21
* 1,618,21 = 1,618,210,000 poods.					

Russian Copper Output in 1911

The productions of the individual regions were as below—

	1911	1910
	POODS.	POODS.
Urals	809,000	506,000
Caucasus	487,000	471,000
Altai	1,700	500
Siberia	228,000	196,000
Chemical and Refineries Works	56,000	57,000

The increase, though observable at all copper producing centres, except the Altai, was particularly pronounced in the Urals, where it amounted to 43 per cent.

CHAPTER XIX

THE GRAIN TRADE AND MILLING INDUSTRY IN THE URAL REGION

RUSSIA produces every year about four milliard poods (1 pood equals 36 lb.) of grain—about 66,000,000 tons—of which about 50,000,000 poods, representing a value of, roughly, £50,000,000, are exported. The Ural region is a rye-producing country, especially important by reason of its geographical situation. Vjatka, in this respect, takes the first place. According to available Russian data, this Government and that of Tamiloff occupy predominant places among all the Russian rye-producing districts.

(Rye is the principal article of food of the people, especially the peasant classes, who regard this cereal as far more nourishing than wheat or any other kind of grain.—*Translator's Note.*)

The following table shows the average harvest of the four Ural Provinces during the the last ten years, given in thousands of poods—

	<i>Viatka.</i>	<i>Perm.</i>	<i>Ufa.</i>	<i>Orenburg</i>
Rye . . .	55,000	30,000	50,000	3,000
Oats . . .	50,000	40,000	20,000	20,000
Barley . . .	8,000	8,000	200	2,750
Buckwheat . . .	1,500	1,100	5,000	135
Summer Wheat . . .	1,200	30	9,000	50,000
Peas . . .	1,200	600	1,600	200

The most fertile region is a portion of the Government of Ufa lying between the rivers Bjelaja and

Kama. These rivers constitute the most convenient and cheapest means of transport for grain, which is forwarded *via* Rybinsk, on the Volga, to Petrograd, and thence exported abroad. Another important grain centre is Tchestapol, on the Lower Kama.

As before stated, an important milling industry has come into existence in the Government of Ekaterinburg, Siberian grain being principally ground here. Inferior seed is, however, chiefly used in the distilleries, and spirits are obtained, as a rule, from potatoes.

The grain trade of the Ural region is in the hands of local men, who buy up grain in the small weekly markets and store it, prior to shipping it or forwarding it by rail. The peasant, who in autumn is nearly always greatly in need of money, is then frequently compelled to sell a portion of his harvest at a very low figure, particularly as the wretched roads make transport almost impossible during the winter months. For the time, in winter, practically all business is at a standstill.

The new grain, which by the autumn has found its way to Rybinsk, forms but a small fraction (about 10 per cent.) of the entire harvest. Only in spring is it possible to send great quantities away by the large river barges ; at this time of the year these can be fully loaded, owing to the depth of water, due to spring floods, making navigation easier. According to the report of the Department of Ways and Communications, in 1909 the following

quantities of grain were shipped on the rivers Kama, Vjatka, and Bjelaja ; given in poods—

	<i>Kama.</i>	<i>Bjelaja.</i>	<i>Vjatka.</i>
Rye . . .	8,430,000	7,393,000	1,326,000
Oats . . .	2,833,000	1,850,000	3,338,000
Rye Meal . .	7,052,000	3,316,000	3,560,000
Wheat . . .	—	350,000	—

The actual transport of grain begins at the town of Orsa, on the Kama, south of Perm ; but on the Bjelaja and Ufa rivers, shipments go from almost all the landing-places. It is an interesting sight to see the long rows of stevedores engaged in this work. Most of them are Tartars, veritable giants, of the type portrayed by Maxim Gorki, and the burdens they manage to carry surpass anything a Western European can imagine.

[Some of them are Persians, also extremely powerful men ; at Astrachan, on the Caspian, it is not unusual to see a single Persian labourer carrying on his shoulders up the gangway from ship to shore a grand piano, which here we should consider a heavy load for two or three men.—*Translator's Note.*]

These primitive methods of loading cannot be avoided, as there are no cranes or elevators, although along the Samara-Zlatoosk railway there are said to be several modern elevators and capacious granaries. Oats and rye form the principal traffic on the Kama and Bjelaja ; on the Vjatka, generally oats ; and flour on the Lower Kama.

Ekaterinburg and Perm occupy an important position as regards the milling industry ; although

the Governments of Vjatka, Ufa, and Orenburg produce more grain, milling has not attained such proportions in them. The regions round Tchela-binsk are in process of rapid development in this respect. Many smaller mills, often driven by petroleum motors, are to be found in all the Govern-ments, but these supply chiefly local necessities.

(C. E. W. P.)

CHAPTER XX

THE MACHINE DEPOTS OF THE RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT IN SIBERIA

IN addition to what has already been said on the previous pages concerning this subject, we may add some further information, as the Crown Depots (Kazennyi Sklad) can be regarded as typical of the trade in machines in Siberia. Their principal privilege consists of business capital free of interest in use, discounts on railway freight, free postage, and freedom from taxation. All these advantages are enjoyed by the Government despite competition with the merchants. Notwithstanding these favours, it cannot be said that the latter suffer directly from the Government's competition. The Crown depots, as a rule, keep up fixed prices and are content with reasonable profits; what with the bureaucratic methods of carrying on business which still continue, and the systematic maintaining of certain machine marks, it happens that the free merchant is fully able to hold his own.

" On Consignment "

The Crown Depots are estimated to make a fourth of all the sales of agricultural implements, etc., in Siberia. In the beginning, although furnished with many privileges, they were managed too much on bureaucratic lines, and consequently

worked at a loss for a long time. The first depots were opened at Petropavlovsk, Omsk, and Kurgan. After having been controlled by the Ministry for Home Affairs, in 1898 they came under the European Department ; finally, in 1906, under the Ministry of Agriculture. If one can succeed in introducing a certain trade mark with them, one has generally a profitable and sure customer for several years ahead. But, unhappily, there exists a silent understanding between all the buyers for Government stores to ask for machines "on commission and consignment." If the supplier is not willing to deliver them, he is generally recommended to apply to the chief depot in Omsk, which almost exclusively expects to receive all machines "on consignment."

American Competition

Since the year 1903, Omsk has become the central depot, and its manager is regarded as the head of all the other stations. For this reason it is possible to purchase wares at wholesale prices, under far better and cheaper conditions. Moreover, the depots are able to exchange machines and to equalise the stocks. Machines are bought at cash prices whenever the rates are sufficiently tempting. Although all these Government depots are instructed to purchase, in preference, articles of Russian manufacture, they cannot help keeping machines of foreign make in large quantities, especially reaping machines and separators. Of

the six firms which constituted the American Trust—McCormick, Deering, Osborne, Champion, Milwaukee, and Plane—the Crown depot in Omsk first favoured Deering, which was a good advertisement for the Americans in Russia. For several years Deering's enjoyed a practical monopoly in the Siberian markets. The turnover of this firm alone amounted to some millions of roubles.

[The Americans are spending much time, capital, and energy in pushing their mining and dredging machines in Eastern Siberia, where, as is well known, there is much auriferous wealth.—*Translator's Note.*]

After sustaining considerable losses during the first years of their activity, the depots have now begun to be a profitable affair. The number of Crown stores has been increased, and forty or fifty are now at work in Siberia.

Board of Emigration

The duties of the Board of Emigration consist in the forwarding, clothing, and maintaining those emigrating to Siberia, procuring them land, and administrating a trading department, the work of which is to supply emigrants with material for building their houses, seed, and machines for their first difficult period, and sometimes with cattle and draught beasts. Its administrative centre is Omsk, and, as before stated, it now makes the purchases for all the Siberian depots, though many branch managers take up a very independent position ;

and for that reason the greater factors and firms have their representatives in that city. The Crown Depots are Government Institutions, and the Crown is responsible for their purchases; this does not, however, prevent their payments being very slow and at uncertain intervals. Therefore, the value of a good representative in Omsk is not to be underestimated; for those who understand how to procure the right kind of *entrée* have the advantage of being more quickly attended to, and a firm which has once been introduced at the Crown Depot can reckon on having a greater turnover among the merchants.

Credit

Conditions of credit in Siberia are for the most part the same as in European Russia, varying according to the wares involved, but, speaking generally, it may be said that in Siberia buyers expect and receive longer terms of credit. A fixed period, it seems, cannot be arranged, but of all the goods Sweden exports, the longest term of credit is expected on oil motors. This is explained by their high price relatively. The most accommodating firms in the matter of long credits are German.

Siberia a Good Market

The possibilities for the sale of all kinds of agricultural goods in Siberia are limitless. A great sale is already guaranteed beforehand, owing to the enormous wear and tear of machinery. The careless

way in which it is handled, the great variations of temperature to which it is subjected, and, above all, the absence of repairing facilities, cause the life of a machine to be very short. But the harvesting time is also brief, and must be quickly and fully made use of, else crops are lost. In some districts of the Yenesei the seed ripens in 100 days (from sowing to harvest) and frost can come so suddenly that it often happens harvest is being gathered while the snow is falling. Obviously, then, all farming equipment finds a ready market in Siberia.

CHAPTER XXI

AGRICULTURE IN SIBERIA

SEPARATORS, as has been stated with good reason by Russian experts on agriculture, have formed an important item in the development of Siberia. By their aid the Russian peasant has had an opportunity of witnessing the superiority of work done by machinery over that accomplished by manual labour.

Butter and Machinery

The increased production of butter has also brought in its train the need for larger crops of hay, and their preservation during the winter. In consequence of this, the use of reaping machines, horse rakes, and other implements required in dairy-farming has grown. The export of butter, which has attained great dimensions, has given the Siberian peasant a better income and placed him in a position to buy and use modern agricultural accessories.

The butter export and the trade in machinery are both dependent upon regular communications and transport routes ; hence it follows that the sale of machinery is intimately associated with the regions concerned with the butter industry. The map at the end of this work shows that the district round Krasnoyarsk is an exception in this respect,

in that this part, although not devoted to the production of butter on a large scale, nevertheless evinces an increasing demand for implements. This arises from the fact that the fertile corn-growing region, as far south as Minussinsk, satisfies its need.

From Tchelabinsk, and farther, right on to Novo-Nikolaieffsk, there stretches alongside the Siberian Railway a broad belt of places with depots for agricultural implements, and these are also found at every station in various quantities. In the great centres, such as Omsk, Kurgan, Petropavlovsk, Barnaul, Biisk, and others, one comes across at least a dozen large firms carrying on a business in these goods; and even in the larger villages a number of dealers in this machinery are met with. It is noticeable, first of all, that their stores stand, as a rule, in the open street, exposed to all the influences of the weather. Ploughs, harrows, hand-threshing machines, butter churns, etc., are piled one on the other; and if the stranger should remark that even if they are not seriously damaged they will, at any rate, suffer in appearance, the reply comes: "They will look still worse directly they are used!" It must not be imagined, from this careless observation, that it is wise to deliver poor-looking articles with little ornamentation or "get-up," for colour and general appearance are great considerations with the purchasers, and many a German firm owes its success in no small measure to the partiality of the Russian buyers for bright colours.

The Depots of the Russian Government

It is not generally known that the Government officials for the organisation of agriculture carry on an extensive trade in agricultural implements. In Siberia, this organisation is probably the largest in the trade. For numerous reasons, the need for a complete inventory of implements and machinery is urgent in Siberia and the Western Asiatic steppe regions. The necessity of laying up stores of fodder for the winter (for, on account of the early cold, harvest-time is very brief) and the want of labourers, combined with the comparative prosperity of the peasants, has the result that Siberia, on which we in general have been accustomed to look down, is, in the use of first-class agricultural machinery, considerably ahead of European Russia. It is estimated that in Siberia about three times as much modern machinery is employed on a single acre as in European Russia. Siberia and the steppe districts alone give work to dozens of large firms, principally American, trading in these articles.

The Russian Institute, which has in hand the ordering of emigration to Siberia, has also arranged for the sale of agricultural goods in that country on a large scale. The first depot is already in working order in Tchelabinsk, and similar ones are to be found in the whole of the country, even as far as Vladivostock, and in a southern direction the trade of the Board of Emigration extends its activity to the Chinese frontier. In 1912, its

turnover is said to have amounted to about 8·4 million roubles, about 40,000 ploughs, 26,000 reaping machines, 7,000 winnowing and other machines, and 3,500 threshing machines, etc., being disposed of. Moreover, it must be remembered that this Institute, supported by the Government, in no way shuts out the competition of private undertakings. In every case it works with a good profit ; but the profit is largely employed for purposes of culture, such as the upkeep of schools, experimental sowing, establishments for the study and improvement of plants, and for the publication and circulation of educational pamphlets for the people. The rapid progress of Siberia, in fact, in the matter of culture, may be attributed in no small measure to the work of this Board.

The table at the end of this chapter will show the prices obtained by the stores belonging to the Government, in Omsk, from 1909 to 1912, with some minor fluctuations. The average now would be about 5 per cent. higher. They can also be taken as typical of the figures obtained in other Government stores in Siberia ; but as the rouble was at that time worth more than it is at present (2s. 1d. as compared with 1s. 2d.), the profit on all articles exported to Russia will be proportionately increased, especially if the money thus gained is invested in the country. As a rule, it is advisable to invest English money in farming, manufactures, and mining now that the rouble is low ; for when Russia recovers from the war, it will probably rise to its former

value—unless the Government goes in for what we term a “spirited foreign policy.”

Trade in Agricultural Machinery and Implements in Western Siberia

In these terms, it must be understood, are included ploughs (hand or power-driven), reaping machinery, threshing mills, steam-engines and locomotives, and other sources of power, cleansing and winnowing machines, dairy machines; but not spades and similar items.

The import to Siberia west of Lake Baikal is generally carried on through two points: Tchela-binsk and Tumen; these form the two junctions of railway communication for the country. Goods bound for Eastern Siberia arrive chiefly *via* Vladivostock, especially those of American manufacture. Statistics available, which should be very dependable as far as they relate to rail transport, show that imports to Siberia by means of this route in 1906, without reckoning the import by the Perm-Tumen line, amounted to 2,137,000 poods, valued at 15,492,097 roubles; in 1912, the imports over the Russian-Asiatic frontier rose to the value of 25,000,000 roubles. This includes Russian manufactured goods. A table at the end of this volume shows the distribution of the 1906 imports.

As we have seen, considerable quantities of Russian agricultural machinery are sent to Siberia, especially ploughs. About 70,000 from South Russia alone arrived, without counting those made by the

peasant in household industries, and those coming from a few other factories. The main source, however, lies abroad, and American factories take the primary place. Austrian manufactured goods are seldom seen in Siberia, and English deliveries, with the exception of portable engines, are less frequent than in European Russia. England's export to Russia in this branch of trade consists mainly of large portable engines and threshing machines, and large steam ploughs, the era for which has not yet arrived in Siberia. Canada sends a well-known type of threshing machine, manufactured by Massey Harris. Recently, the Lister-Darley and Wolseley-Pedersen separators, from Birmingham, have endeavoured to find a market. The English crude-oil motors begin to gain a footing, and their more careful and solid construction will secure for them a great sale in the future; they are usually four-stroke, and, as such, are stronger made than the Swedish two-stroke.

In dairy machinery, Sweden, up to the present, commands the market and should maintain her monopoly, particularly with regard to separators. Attempts to introduce in Siberia the German separators have not met with much success.

Threshing machines, on the contrary, are America's almost exclusive monopoly. It is true that a few English, Swedish, and German models have appeared, but these vanish among the great numbers of American machines. Since the "International Harvester Co." has taken to manufacturing

in Russia on a large scale, and even makes the "Lobogrejka," a peasant implement often more suitable for local conditions, for a long time it will probably be difficult to compete with it in this sphere, the more so as the Americans are much better situated financially than their competitors.

Germany manages with considerable success the sale of ploughs, cultivators, threshing machines, multiple sowing-machines and, more recently, portable steam engines.

The household manufacture of implements and the sale of them in Siberia is considerable ; more than half of all sold there are made within the confines of the Russian Empire ; chiefly in European Russia, although there are at present few factories. "Lobogrejka" are made by B. Hahn, of Odessa ; Helferich-Sade, in Kharkoff ; Elsworthy, in Ekaterinoslaff ; John Grieves, in Bardjansk ; Franz & Schröder, in the Taurida ; by the Aksaj Co., of Rostoff-on-the-Don ; Fuchs, Badoffsky, and a number of other works, most of them found in Southern Russia. These firms also make ploughs, and latterly the ploughs have reached Siberia, and are manufactured there in large numbers. Messrs. Stoll, of Voronesh, have a branch in Tchelabinsk employing about 150 men, and in Omsk, S. Randrup, a Danish firm originally exporting butter, has, with the aid of British capital, started the manufacture of ploughs on an extensive scale. This firm seems to have succeeded well, and it also supplies

winnowing gear, with other accessories suited for local requirements.

[*N.B.*—The author of this book endeavoured to interest the Swedish plough manufacturers in the partial making of the most expensive types now made in Germany, which would be a paying business with a brilliant future, but found little support.]

The following works and factories have a good name and do large business in Siberian markets—

¹ Hahn, Odessa ; ploughs.

Fuchs, Balschoi Tochmak, Taurida ; reaping machines.

Franz Schröder ; reaping and threshing machinery.

The Aksaj Co., Rostoff-on-Don ; ploughs.

Grieves & Co., Bardjansk ; reaping machines.

Liphardt & Co., Moscow ; ploughs, threshing machines, motors.

Stoll & Co., Voronesh ; ploughs, motors, harrows, etc.

Ljuberitsky, Zavod ; reaping machines, motors, ploughs.

Phoenix Co., Riga ; implements for tilling the land

Baltic Wagon Works, Riga ; implements for tilling the land, and motors.

Peasant industries produce in considerable quantities the more simple kind of plough, made of wood (like those of the ancient Egyptians), also threshing

¹ Many of the Germans in Russia are Russian subjects from the Baltic Provinces whose ancestors have been established in Russia for centuries.

machines of primitive type, winnowing machines with gear made of wood, with cast-iron cogs screwed in it.

The remarkable skill of the Russian peasant in handicraft shows itself in his endeavour to make all things necessary for his use. He manufactures clumsy but useful implements for his work, and at present such articles as grinding mills, chopping machines, manure spreaders, and various other appliances important to the industry of agriculture have no, or very little, sale. There is also little demand for cooling machines for the use of dairies, or for other more modern inventions. Considering the large amount of butter produced, it is astonishing that the sale of "self-binders" is still very extensive. Almost the whole of Western Siberia is an unbroken succession of steppes, with the surface free from stones. It is, therefore, an ideal land for agriculture. Taking into consideration the vast area, the produce obtained is by no means great, and at harvest-time there is generally a great scarcity of labour. Owing to the great heat, grain ripens very quickly, and the period for gathering in the crops is necessarily short.

<i>Manufacturer's Name.</i>	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Price in Roubles.</i>
Plough, Hahn, Odessa . . .	A.B.G. 1 .	18
" " " . . .	A.B.G. 2 .	23
" " " . . .	A.B.G. 3 .	25
" " " . . .	A.B.G. 4 .	30
" " " . . .	A.B.G. 5 .	32
Threshing Machinery, Liphardt, Moscow	N.S.D. .	280-295
" " Elsworthy, "	B. 18 .	310
" " home manufac.	For 2 horses	185
Plough. Sacks manufacture (German)	D. 7 M. .	28
" " " "	D. 8 M. .	31
" " " "	D. 10 M. .	32

<i>Manufacturer's Name.</i>	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Price in Roubles.</i>
Plough. Liphardt	A.F.D.	45
Reaping machine, Fuchs (Russian)	Gp.	155
Self-binding „ Deering (Amer.)	—	350
Reaping machine (American)	5½ feet	180
Winnowing machine „	4½ „	135
Russia Homework	—	30-32

[N.B.—These prices obtained from 1909-1912, with some small fluctuations. They may be regarded as typical of the prices charged in the remaining Government Depots in Siberia.]

CHAPTER XXII

THE MOST IMPORTANT TOWNS OF SIBERIA

WEST OF LAKE BAIKAL

APART from the greater Siberian "villages" (many of which have from 25,000 to 30,000 inhabitants, an extensive trade, and are well on the way to becoming towns), the most notable centres west of Lake Baikal are the following—

TJUMEN, with a population of about 35,000. This is where such goods as arrive *via* Perm, and which must be transhipped by means of the rivers Irtysh and Obi, or *vice versa*, must be unloaded. The town has several steamboat companies, and a considerable trade. In June, a market for the sale of hides, skins, bristles, etc., is held. (*See* table at end for figures relating to various hide markets.) Various industries are quite lively here. A steamer-wharf employs about 500 men, and some large steam flour-mills are running. There are also engineering and mechanical works, iron and other foundries, a tannery, two breweries, and about ten steam saw-mills, etc. All these give one the impression of having only made a beginning of their activity and of awaiting the advent of competitors.

KURGAN, with about 35,000 inhabitants, is the principal centre of the butter trade of Siberia, although its meat and game export is by no means insignificant. The trade in agricultural machinery

is worthy of attention. In recent years the butter business has attracted to this place a large colony of Danes, and even some Russian-Germans and Englishmen.

PETROPAVLOVSK, population from 35,000 to 40,000, is the centre for the trade in cattle intended for slaughter, in meat, tallow, hides, horsehair, and other products from the Khirgise steppes. The butter trade is strongly developed, and the turnover in agricultural and dairy machinery is large. A great number of Danish business men and dairy-farmers have settled here and in neighbouring districts. The industries are inconsiderable ; a few tanneries and some medium-sized mills are in operation.

OMSK, with about 80,000 inhabitants, claims to be the capital of Siberia, although Tomsk in every respect disputes this claim. Useful information as to how business should be carried on with England or other countries is best obtained by means of a personal visit ; failing this, by private connections. The numerous foreign colony here has in its ranks several prominent firms which would answer this purpose, but it must not be forgotten that these have, as a rule, their own interests to look after. Until the war broke out, Germany kept a State-paid Consul at Omsk ; besides this, the commercial attaché of the General Consulate in Petrograd was for a time stationed in Siberia. The Danish colony is principally concerned in the butter business, but sometimes sells dairy and other machines.

Omsk occupies a very favourable position, being

situated on the very spot where the Siberian Railway crosses the river Irtysh. Not always, by any means, does it happen that the railway touches the towns it serves ; on the contrary, the line is often miles away from some important business centre. The town has, therefore, to come to the railway, since the latter will not go to the town. This essentially Russian way of projecting a line of communication is also noticeable in European Russia, especially on the Nicholai Railway.

As regards agricultural machinery, the trade of Omsk takes first place among Siberian towns, and it is making rapid strides, particularly in butter, meat, and other raw produce. It is the chief centre for Russian textile manufactures, and many other Western European goods are sold to and through Omsk. Several railways are either under construction or being planned, and the completion of these will have a great effect on the progress of the town in a commercial sense.

The industries do not exceed the local requirements, even if certain works which manufacture ploughs, etc., may be regarded as carrying on a rather wider business. Recently, however, various factories for the manufacture of colours, soap, confectionery, cigarettes, materials for electrical installations, etc., have been erected, which all rely on their output finding a market within Siberia.

Good banking connections facilitate business in Omsk, and there are distinct possibilities of development in all branches of trade.

SEMIPALATCHINSK, population about 40,000, has a valuable trade in wool, hides, horsehair, bristles, and other raw products. It is the starting-point for caravans going to Central Asia ; hence, a trade in Asiatic articles still flourishes, though owing to the railway it has not the same importance as formerly. There are great mills in the regions round here, and the largest distillery in Siberia is situated here.

The Siberian gold-workings have to some extent their own offices for making purchases, and also run co-operative stores in Semipalatchinsk. A good business should be done in mining, boring, and crushing machinery in this town.

NOVO-NIKOLAIIEFFSK is quite a new town, which for the most part has come into existence since the opening of the Siberian Railway. At the present time it should have a population numbering from 30,000 to 35,000. Its position strongly resembles that of Omsk, as it is situated where the railway crosses the river Obi. The coal beds of Sudschenkoffsky are near here ; these, when we note their suitable locality, seem to signify that this spot will become the future industrial centre of Siberia. There are already saw-mills, flour mills, and some small engineering works. The transport of goods on the river is considerable, and if the town obtains the promised line to the Altai-Central Asian frontier it has undoubtedly brilliant prospects. Unfortunately, this and other projects are treated with the well-known Russian dilatoriness.

Both in Novo-Nikolaieffsk and in Tomsk there is an excellent opportunity for capable English merchants, and a well-paid consular official, or commercial attaché, has in each place a field for his activities.

BARNAUL has about 35,000 inhabitants. The dairy farms here are in the hands of Danes, and as the town lies in a relatively populous region, trade is exceptionally good. There is a capital market for separators, harvesting machinery, horse-rakes, harrows, scythes, etc., and small oil motors.

TOMSK, if we go by the criterion of population, is the largest city of Siberia, and although it does not come directly into contact with the railway, it is still, as regards trade, one of the most important. In educational facilities it occupies the first place in the country.

The Government (Province) of Tomsk is rich in many respects. It has the administrative offices of the Government, the chief offices of the Siberian Railway, and other Government institutions. The University, a Technical High School, a seminary for women, an Academy of Music, a museum, and theatres, etc., all tend to make Tomsk the most notable town of Siberia.

Its population has a vigorous purchasing capacity. It is the centre for supplying the Siberian gold mines, and if the trade in raw produce has been attracted to other places perhaps more suitably situated, on the other hand in recent years a lively trade has sprung up in better class goods. Various

steamboat companies are to be found here, dealing with the river traffic, also mills, breweries, saw-works, match manufacturers, tanneries, foundries, furriers, and factories for preparing furs, etc. We may regard Tomsk as easily the most flourishing industrial city of Siberia.

A considerable number of foreigners, almost all exclusively occupied with the trade in the country's products or the import of foreign manufactured goods, reside here. Before the war, Germany had a consul in the place. Excellent banking connections can be arranged through almost all the more important Russian banks, and the Credit Lyonnais.

KRASNOJARSK, with about 50,000 inhabitants, is chiefly a place of transport for goods on freight, which have to be forwarded by the river or unloaded for the railway. The trade of the town does not seem to be sufficiently developed, and I could not observe any very important single industry. There are a few dealers in agricultural machinery, but they purchase *via* Omsk. Dairies have recently been established on the spot, and this business, owing to the favourable situation of the place, has certainly numerous possibilities.

IRKUTSK is the port of passage to Lake Baikal, and by means of it, also to Eastern Siberia. The town has, perhaps, 80,000 or 90,000 people, the number varying with the strength of the garrison. Here, trade with Eastern Asia becomes more vigorous. Irkutsk is also greatly interested in the

gold-mining of the Lena region. Agricultural machines are little needed here, and the country north of the Lake is almost uninhabited. Large saw-mills have been built, but the future prospects of the town depend on political conditions.

Life in Siberian towns differs somewhat from that in European Russia, although the people show in their manner of living many of the typical peculiarities of the Western Russian. Even though a variety of races have populated Siberia, the Great Russian (Velyky Russ) has set his stamp on the life of the towns, and even on that of the peasantry ; though we must exclude from this the nomad races, Khirgise, and Tartars (some of whom are settlers), as well as the large number of German colonists, and the " Balter " or inhabitants of the Baltic Provinces. The Khirgise, who subsist principally by the tending and rearing of cattle, are the actual suppliers of raw hides, furs, horsehair, bristles, wool, and similar articles.

Another Mongolian branch of importance in trade are the " Burjats," who also supply furs, and are here the equivalents of the Yakutes in Irkutsk. In the towns one often meets with Poles, the descendants of exiles to these distant parts ; several Polish firms are in business. The German colonists, who emigrated here from South Russia, constitute, as in their own old home, the best and surest purchasers of agricultural machinery, if we except the dairies that have been founded by Danes or Germans from Germany, and other undertakings

established by foreigners. These are, in general, certain buyers.

[Many of the German colonists, who have been settled in Russia for about 150 years, are exceedingly well off, prosperous farmers, landowners, manufacturers, and merchants. As a rule, they speak a corrupt form of German, and wear their own peculiar old German costumes. They are generally exceedingly religious, being mostly followers of John Huss and Jerome of Prague; and, broadly speaking, they are very trustworthy.—*Translator's Note.*]

(C. E. W. P.)

CHAPTER XXIII

THE USE AND NECESSITY OF "TRADE EXPERTS"

THE following extracts from the Report of the German Commercial Treaties Union to the German Foreign Office, on the "Necessity of Trade Experts," is given at some length, as it shows what importance Germany attaches to the Russian markets, and should act as an incentive to British merchants and the authorities, who are too often inclined to adopt the line of least resistance in dealing with fresh opportunities of trade abroad.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT OF THE GERMAN COMMERCIAL TREATIES UNION

to the Foreign Department in Berlin, concerning the
improvement and extension of the

INSTITUTE OF GERMAN COMMERCIAL ATTACHÉS.

Berlin, 1st August, 1912.—In order to make clear this most important business for our exports, and to subject it to an all-round judgment, we have first of all had the most far-reaching written inquiries made, not only among the corporations chiefly interested, but also of a great number of private individuals. The results of these inquiries have emphasised this reflection: "Do the commercial experts meet the real requirements of the German foreign trade?"

The answer to the first and fundamental question is, on the whole, as good as in the affirmative, that in this institution is to be found one of the most important and promising organisations for the furtherance of the German export trade. The Chamber of Commerce at

Breslau writes that the commercial experts "have given valuable services to all those circles interested in the export business." Other Chambers of Commerce have written in a similar spirit. But at the same time one must not expect that the commercial expert will take the place of the personal experience of the country and its people which our exporters ought to possess for themselves, or that he will save individual firms from sending their own representatives, or render unnecessary their own acquisition of information, data, etc. A commercial attaché is in the first place selected to serve a country's general interests, to direct attention to new markets and commercial possibilities, and to furnish quick reports concerning conditions which affect transport, the credit position, banking, etc., of the country in which they reside.

[With reference to Russia, and especially the interior Governments, the earliest information concerning the harvest prospects would be of advantage to exporters. The manufacturers and exporters at home would then be in a position to direct their work upon a district where a good harvest was anticipated; they would be able to forward catalogues there in good time, send on their travellers, and concentrate their energies on this field. They would also be able to protect themselves from loss—since a bad harvest brings unforeseen difficulties—and to estimate to what extent they should prepare to concede favour to creditors who in a bad year avail themselves of the opportunity to demand prolongation of credit.—*C. E. W. Petersson.*]

While commercial experts keep themselves and their reports within proper limits, one need not fear that lesser firms, weak in capital and useless for independent export, will allow themselves to be led into entering into direct communications with foreign countries. It should be his duty to warn them from this danger.

The proposition has been made in some quarters that commercial experts should (as is customary in some countries) be attached to their legations, and not to the

consulates. With certain exceptions, our business world does not consider this plan advisable; first, because it would then be essential for the commercial attaché to live in the principal residential city of the land in question, which is not in every case the chief trading centre.

[For example: In Russia, Petrograd is not the chief city in a commercial sense; Riga, Moscow, Odessa, Kharkoff, and Kieff are, or will be, equally important from our point of view as exporters.—*C. E. W. P.*]

Moreover, the atmosphere of diplomacy is not quite suitable for merchants, whose time must not be unduly taken up by social duties. Lastly—and this appears to us the most significant objection—the commercial expert at a legation would never come into such intimate contact or into personal touch with the business world of the country as he would at any consulate. We therefore recommend that the system now in force should be maintained.

A considerable increase in the number of commercial attachés is urged on all sides as extremely necessary. It is pointed out, with justice, that the outlay needful for this reform should be considered as well-invested capital, which in time will bring in a good return. The sum of 300,000 marks (£15,000) which has been voted by the State must be at least quadrupled if these much desired aims are to be realised to any extent. But this expenditure, rightly used, bears no proportion to the value which might be reaped by German foreign trade.

The opinion that this sphere should be left to private initiative is held by a very few exporting societies, but not by any corporation or industry of importance, nor by our competitors in the markets of the world. The United States, England, France, and recently even Russia, have shown an increased interest in foreign sales and in the encouragement of institutes of commercial attachés.

A notable increase in the number of our commercial experts is desirable even in Europe, where at the present

moment only two such posts are occupied—at Petrograd and Bucharest. The greater industrial States, especially those with which we have commercial treaties, are far more important than Rumania. Their capitals are: Vienna, Milan, Paris, Zurich, Brussels, Antwerp, Stockholm, Madrid, Lisbon, and Constantinople. Another reason for the increase is that our consulates in the above cities are being more and more overwhelmed every year with duties of every conceivable kind, in such manner that, however efficient a consul may be, he can hardly prove equal to them. At the present moment, Germany has 640 honorary consuls, and only 142 paid consuls, and in this respect takes a bad position compared with other great commercial States. In England, the proportion is 600—210; in the United States, 299—304; in France, 633—217. These figures speak for themselves. They show how a much stronger representation is desirable for the protection of German interests. In many of the places mentioned, German commercial experts are already at work, but human energy does not suffice to cover such an immense field as regards conditions, customs, and business usages; more so when we consider such widely separated territories as China, British India, Japan, the United States, and Russia. For Russia and the United States, three and four commercial attachés should not be too many. In European Russia, the centres of Moscow, Warsaw, and Odessa are chiefly to be considered.

CHAPTER XXIV

POPULATION AND LANGUAGE

IN the year 1907 the population of the Russian Empire was 126,000,000 ; in 1916 it stands at about 185,000,000 (including the Grand Duchy of Finland).

The population doubles every fifty to fifty-five years, in spite of the fact that Russia's mortality rate is the highest in Europe. By the year 1985, at the present rate of increase, the number of inhabitants will exceed 400,000,000, without considering annexations in Europe and Asia which Russia is continually making.

In every 1,000 persons, it is estimated that there are 771 peasants, 107 citizens, 66 aborigines (Tartars, Finns, etc.), 23 Cossacks, 15 nobles, 5 ecclesiastics, 5 ennobled citizens, and 8 of different occupations unclassified. Most of the aborigines dwell in Asia, the Caucasus, and Eastern Siberia.

There are about 112,000,000 peasants in Russia, the majority of them having either their own freeholds or a share in the communal land. About three-fourths of the people are engaged in agricultural pursuits ; about 10 per cent. in industries and various handicrafts ; 10 per cent. in private service ; and about $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. are in trade.

The languages spoken would fill a lengthy list. The principal ones are Russian, Little Russian,

White Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Bulgarian, Lithuanian, Lettish, Moldavian, Esthonian, Armenian, and many varieties of Finnish, Tartar, Bashkir, Turkish, Khirgise, Kurdish, Mongolian, etc. To these must be added Yiddish, German, Norwegian, Swedish, and Greek. There are at least forty different languages in the Caucasus alone, and as many races.

About 6,000,000 births take place every year ; but of these babes about 3,000,000 die, owing to the lack of doctors and nurses, and to the ignorance of the people. Notwithstanding this terrible mortality, the subjects of the Tsar increase more rapidly than any other nation in Europe except the Slovjak race, Serbs, and other Slav peoples of the Balkans. Roughly speaking, the Slavs in Russia and the Balkans increase three times more rapidly than the Germanic races, and ten times as quickly as the Anglo-Saxons.

This tremendous growth-rate, and the unrivalled resources of an Empire that stretches from the Baltic to the Pacific in one unbroken land, give reason to the belief that the future belongs to the Russian and Slav ; the more so because these races are not only prolific but are highly gifted in languages, music, literature, and in any work requiring the use of the imaginative faculties. The Slavonic races are not, however, so practical as the Germanic, and are prone to anarchy and disunion.

The greater part of the Empire is, of course, sparsely populated. In the Northern Governments

of Archangel, Vologda, Perm, Onega, etc., many districts have only three, four, or five persons to the square verst (281 acres). It has been estimated that if European Russia were properly cultivated, like England, France, and Germany, there would be room and subsistence for 600,000,000 inhabitants.

The majority of the people are not only very poor, but wasteful and extravagant, considering their scanty incomes. With the prohibition of vodka, however, the people have begun to save on a considerable scale; the result being that their purchasing powers have appreciably increased, and they are often able to buy English wares (in which they take great pride) instead of the cheap and inferior German goods which flooded the country before the war, and which played havoc with English trade.

The language is a great problem, and, as a writer in the *Western Daily Press* truly says, it is one which England "can afford to ignore no longer. The Britisher's boast that instead of learning other people's languages he makes them learn his, is all very well in its way, and when dealing with subject races or savage tribes is unquestionably a sound line of policy to adopt; but if England is to maintain her position in European trade she has need to revise her language policy with the least possible delay. If Great Britain is to have anything like her proper share in the big trade turnover which must result from the industrial development of the Russian Empire, she will need at once to follow in

the footsteps of Germany and encourage her coming business men to make a practical study of Russian markets, Russian trade conditions and business opportunities, and, above all, of the Russian tongue."

(W. B. S.)

CHAPTER XXV

VARIOUS TABLES OF USE TO BUSINESS MEN

LIST OF ARTICLES EXPORTED TO RUSSIA IN 1912 BY GERMANY, AND VALUE OF SAME IN MARKS

(20M. = £1)			
<i>Kind of Goods.</i>	<i>Value.</i>	<i>Remarks.</i>	
Cement	2,235,000		
Thomas Phosphate	5,556,000		
Super-phosphate	6,598,000		
Milk-skimming machines (hand and power)			
Spark explosion motors for benzine, naphtha, etc.	4,720,000		
Telephone apparatus	989,000		
Harvest and reaping machines	667,000		
Timber working machinery, saw frames	2,524,000		
Steam turbines	941,000	Including gas turbines.	
Machines for metal-working	8,975,000		
Threshing machines	4,360,000		
Sowing machines, etc., and rakes	4,627,000		
Pumps and fire-hose, etc.	2,338,000		
"Harvar" cultivators	1,753,000		
Ploughs	8,746,000	Not including power-driven.	
Incandescent lamps	617,000		
Cooking apparatus of copper			
Motors and motor-lorries, etc.	21,054,000		
Drain-pipes	204,000		
Fireproof bricks	3,005,000		

THE TURNOVER IN HIDES, SKINS, AND SIMILAR GOODS AT THE HIDE FAIRS OF TJUMEN AND PETROPAVLOVSK

KIND OF GOODS	TJUMEN.		PETROPAVLOVSK.		<i>Aver. Price.</i>
	<i>Received.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>	<i>Received.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>	
Horse hides (pieces)	210,000	250,000	254,100	243,316	6.50
Cow hides	5,220,000	366,000	249,713	272,762	6
Calfskins	16,000	10,000	—	—	6
Sheepskins	1,693,000	1,664,000	1,386,500	1,552,000	1
Goatskins	—	—	854,343	837,742	1.20
Camelskins	10,000	17,000	23,400	18,736	5.50
Sheepskins (poods)	231,000	223,000	123,000	83,000	8.50
Camelhair	20,000	28,000	33,000	29,000	8
Horsehair	21,000	42,000	8,554	8,962	20
Pig bristles	3,000	2,500	54	54	—

(1 pood = 36 English lb. 60 poods = 1 ton.)

[N.B.—When the export exceeds the import (or

goods received), the sales have been made up out of the previous year's stocks.]

The price of bristles varies considerably—between 25 and 90 roubles per pood. During more recent years, this kind of goods has been bought up for commission houses in Leipzig, where they are sorted and priced prior to being exported to England, Sweden, and other countries.

[*Note.*—The last-mentioned data are for 1906, as it has not been possible to obtain reliable figures for the later years. This information is given in order to induce merchants abroad to purchase their wares direct and not through agents in Germany.]

**THROUGH FREIGHTS FOR THE EXPORT OF SIBERIAN GOODS
TO RIGA, F.O.B.**

KIND OF GOODS.	FROM KURGAN TO RIGA.				FROM NOVO-NIKOLAIJEFFSK ON THE OBI TO RIGA.			
	By the pood.		A whole wagon.		By the pood.		A whole wagon.	
	<i>Copecks</i> <i>per</i> <i>pood.</i>	<i>Marks</i> <i>per</i> <i>ton.</i>	<i>Copecks</i> <i>per</i> <i>pood.</i>	<i>Marks</i> <i>per</i> <i>ton.</i>	<i>Copecks</i> <i>per</i> <i>pood.</i>	<i>Marks</i> <i>per</i> <i>ton.</i>	<i>Copecks</i> <i>per</i> <i>pood.</i>	<i>Marks</i> <i>per</i> <i>ton.</i>
Pork .	—	—	55	72	—	—	70	92
Eggs .	160	210	65	85	200	262	90	118
Game .	120	157	95	125	135	177	110	144
Feathers .	120	157	80	105	135	177	105	138
Skins .	120	157	80	105	135	177	70	92
Flax .	120	157	55	72	135	177	70	92
Wool .	160	210	80	105	200	262	105	138

These figures are approximate. Further particulars can be obtained from Messrs. Gerhard & Hay's offices in London: Russian Transport Specialists, Great St. Thomas Apostle, London, E.C. They have branches in all the principal cities of Russia and Siberia.

Owing to the depreciation of the rouble, which before the war stood at about 2s., the above

quotations should now be about 40 or 50 per cent. lower than they were in 1914.

For further details concerning the opening out of trade in Russia and Siberia, the reader will do well to inquire of the British Chamber of Commerce, 4 Gorocharova, Petrograd ; this has sections for agriculture, finance, law, mining, and the timber industries. Its journal is published monthly in English and Russian, and sent free to all the members. Advertisements in Russian papers are inserted by the Russian Advertising Agency, 359 Strand, W.C., which will furnish valuable particulars and information to all who wish to open business with Russia.

(C. E. W. P.) & (W. B. S.)

CHAPTER XXVI

SOME DATA OF NATIONAL ECONOMIC VALUE

It is of importance to firms who wish to cultivate Russian markets to study most carefully the general data concerning the industries and trade of the country. The report "concerning the proposed Imperial Budget for 1913," which Kokovtzeff, Minister of Finance, laid before the Duma, is enlightening. It contains most valuable notes relating to the national economy; but, in consequence of its great bulk, only a few short extracts can be given here. Those who are especially interested in the question should study his volume, *La Russie a la fin du 19me. siècle*.

Agriculture

In the introduction to this document, weight is laid upon the striking progress that has been made in agriculture during recent years. "After the disturbing events of 1904-1905," says the author, "the reforms that have been effected have borne unexpected fruit." Exports of agricultural produce were as follows: 1895, 608 million roubles; 1905, 947 million roubles; 1911, 1,365 million roubles. In 1895 the accumulated value of such products amounted to four milliard roubles; by 1910 it had risen to nine milliards, or £900,000,000.

The development is well shown by the increased

demand for agricultural machinery and implements. Imports of these goods were as follows: 1906, 20·7 million roubles; 1911, 57·5 million roubles. Simultaneously with this revival, the home manufacture in this branch increased to such an extent that, in 1911, it represented a value of 61·5 million roubles; consequently, the total value of the machinery and accessories amounted to 119 million of roubles.

Fertilisers

With regard to mineral fertilisers, 13·5 million poods were used in 1908, and 30 million poods in 1911. The home output could not, however, keep pace with the demand, and artificial manure was imported as follows: in 1907, 9·4 million poods; in 1911, not less than 26 million poods.

We have thus before us evidence of an intense development, emphasised by the great number of agricultural societies, which grew from about 1,000 in 1905 to 3,700 in 1912. The number of credit and savings banks for the benefit of agriculturists was, in 1905, only 1,680; but in 1912 the number was 7,978.

Grain and Sugar Beet

The country's export of grain beyond the European frontiers had, in 1907, a value of 428 million roubles; in 1911, the value had grown to 735 millions. One sentence in the report deserves especial note: "The average production of sugar

beet in 1899–1900 in Russia was about 1,020 poods per desjatin (1 desjatin equals $2\frac{3}{4}$ acres); in Germany it was 1,940; but in the year 1911–1912, the average yield in Russia was 1,148 as against 1,298 in Germany. As a natural consequence, the sugar yield, which in Russia in 1899 was only equal to about half the German, is at the present time almost equal to that of Germany.”

Butter

The butter export in 1901 was valued at 26·5 millions of roubles; in 1911 it had risen to 71,140,000 roubles.

Cotton

The value of the Russian cotton harvest rose from 17·8 millions of poods in 1907 to 27·4 millions in 1911; it thus exceeds the production of Egypt, which was estimated at 20·8 million poods in the same year.

In 1906 the abolition of the so-called “Mir system” began, and as a consequence it is estimated that towards the end of 1912 about 20 million desjatins of land were transferred from the communes to more than 1,000,000 independent peasant proprietors. About 100 million roubles were used during the five years for the carrying out of this reform.

The section concerning trade opens with these words: “During the last five years Russia’s trade has, without question, made great progress”; and

the figures that follow this statement amply prove its truth. The values of the exports and imports on an average during the period 1901-1905 were as follows: Exports, 941.4 millions; Imports, 632.2 millions.

The next period of five years showed on an average 1,204.6 millions and 910.3 millions respectively. In 1911 the exports amounted to 1,591.4 millions, the imports to 1,161.6 million roubles.

It is thus evident that Russia has a considerable reserve balance of trade.

SOME RUSSIAN OIL COMPANIES

IN WHICH BRITISH CAPITAL HAS BEEN INVESTED

Authorised

Capital.

£	
150,000	Koslovsky Petroleum Company
300,000	Kuban Black Sea Oil-fields
2,000	Kuban Contract Syndicate
1,000	Kuban Syndicate
12,000	Kuban Valley Oil-fields Syndicate
600,000	London and Maikop Oil Corporation
12,000	London, Australian and General Exploration Co.
31,500	Maikop Alliance Syndicate
50,000	Maikop and Eastern Oil Company
300,500	Maikop and General Petroleum Trust
450,000	Maikop Apsheron Oil Company
600,000	Maikop Areas
100	Maikop Associated Oil Properties
100 members	
liable for	
10s. each	Maikop Association
50,000	Maikop Boring and Concessions
250,000	Maikop Central Company
125,000	Maikop Consolidated Syndicate
150,000	Maikop Co-operative Petroleum Company
100,000	Maikop Deep Drilling Company
50,000	Maikop Development Syndicate
50,000	Maikop District Oil Company
20,000	Maikop European and General Oil Trust
100	Maikop Freeholds

*Authorised
Capital.*

30,000	Maikop Hadijensky Syndicate
	Maikop Kuban Oil and Trading
100	Maikop Leases
10,000	Maikop Main Line Syndicate
157,000	Maikop Midland Oil-fields
225,000	Maikop Moscow Oil Company
262,000	Maikop Mutual Oil Transport Company
200,000	Maikop New Producers Company
425,000	Maikop Oil and Petroleum Producers
100	Maikop Oil Lands
252,000	Maikop Oil Proprietary
175,000	Maikop Oil Territories
105,000	Maikop Oil Wells Supply Company
100	Maikop Options
250,000	Maikop Orient Oil Company
510,000	Maikop Pipe Line Transport Company
100,000	Maikop Premier Oil Syndicate
	Maikop Producers
	Maikop Proprietary
26,000	Maikop Prusskaia Oil Company
25,000	Maikop Refineries
150,000	Maikop Russian Oil Company
10,000	Maikop Samurskaia Oil Syndicate
400,000	Maikop Selected Oil-fields
260,000	Maikop Spies Company
120,000	Maikop Standard Oil-fields
175,000	Maikop Taman Oil Company
114,000	Maikop Touapsé Oil Company
100	Maikop United Oil Estates
400,000	Maikop Valley Oil Company
307,000	Maikop Victory Oil Company
5,015	North Caspian Syndicate
275,000	North Caucasian Oil-fields
50,500	Northern Maikop Petroleum Company
10,000	Oil Claims
256,250	Oil-fields Finance Corporation
750,000	Oil Trust of Russia
60,000	Premier Kuban (Maikop) Oil Company
	Russian Industrial Development Syndicate
105,000	Russian Kuban Industrial and Petroleum Co.
200,000	Russian Oil Lands
500,000	Russian Petroleum and Liquid Fuel 6 p.c. "B"
	Debs., Red.
	Russian Properties Development Syndicate
22,000	Russian Rotary Oil Boring Company
200,000	Russian United Petroleum Company
105,000	Scottish Maikop Oil Wells

*Authorised**Capital.*

<i>£</i>	
50,000	Second Sakhalin Syndicate
10,000	Selected Options
	Shagirt (Cheleken)
575,000	Shibaieff Petroleum Company, Ordinary Shares, fully paid
115,000	— 6 p.c. Cumul. Pref. fully paid
750,000	Spies Petroleum Company, Shares, fully paid, Nos. 1 to 1,250,000
35,000	Standard Oil Company, of Maikop, Shirvansky
135,000	Star of Maikop
105,000	Taman-Anapa Oil-fields
63,000	Taman Oil Lands
30,000	Taman Peninsular Oil Syndicate
1,000,000	Tcharken-Cheleken Oil Company
200,000	Tchengelek Proprietary Company
200,000	Union Oil-fields of Maikop
25,000	United Petroleum and Finance Corporation
600,000	Ural Caspian Oil Corporation
30,050	Ural Petroleum Syndicate
15,000	Volga Oil-fields

**LIST OF RUSSIAN SECURITIES QUOTED ON THE
LONDON STOCK EXCHANGE**

*Authorised**Capital.**Name.*

<i>£</i>	Government (Coups. pay. in London)
7,000,000	RUSSIA: 3 p.c. 1859, int. due May 1 and Nov. 1
15,820,000	— 3½ p.c. Bonds, Nos. 1-800,000, int. due Jan. 1, Apr., July, October
Roubles	— 4 p.c. Rentes, 1894, Serie I., int. due Mar., Jan., Sept., Dec.
2,650,000,000	— 4 p.c. Consol. 1889, Serie I., int. due 1st Jan., Apr., July, Oct.
26,171,224	— — Serie II., int. due Jan. 1, Apr., July, Oct.
46,375,339	— — Serie III., int. due Jan. 1, Apr., July, Oct.
11,963,875	— 4 p.c. (Dvinsk & Vitebsk), int. due Apr. 5 and Oct. 5
3,026,240	— 4½ p.c. 1909, int. due Jan. 15 and July 15
55,580,020	— 5 p.c. 1822, £ Stg., int. due Mar. 1 and Sept. 1
6,001,030	— 5 p.c. 1906, Series Nos. 274, 339, int. due May 1 and Nov. 1
89,325,000	— 4½ p.c. Govt. Rail Bonds, int. due Jan. 1 and July. 1
1,784,620	FINLAND (Gd. Duchy): 4½ p.c. Govt. Rail Bonds, int. due Jan. 1 and July. 1

*Authorised
Capital.*
£

Name.
Corporations

2,857,140	Baku (City of), 5 p.c. Gold Loan, Nos. 1-20,000 (£20), 71,433-75,032 (£100), 84,293-84,372 (£500) —Scrip, £26 paid, issued at 96
640,000	Helsingfors (City of), 4½ p.c. Loan, 1909, Nos. 1-6,400
1,000,000	—4½ p.c. Loan, 1911, Scrip issued at 97 p.c. (England), all paid
3,174,603	Moscow (City of), 5 p.c. Bonds, 1908 Nos. 1-400 (£500), 401-5,340 (£100), 5,341-65,118 (£20)
407,826	Saratof (City of) 5 p.c. Loan, 1909, within Nos. 1-94 (£19 16s. 10d.), and 95-4,186 (£99 4s. 2d.), Scrip, fully paid
119,000	Tammerfors (City of), 4½ p.c. Loan, 1910, Nos. A1-1,500 (£20), B1-890 (£100), fully paid

Banks

1,500,000	Anglo-Russian Bank, fully paid
500,000	Russian and English Bank Russian Bank for Foreign Trade Russian Commercial and Industrial Bank

Railways

3,544,960	Armavir-Touapsé, 1909, Gtd. 4½ p.c. Bonds
1,913,760	Black Sea Kuban Rly., 1911, 4½ p.c. Bonds
1,888,000	Grand Russian Rly. Co., Nicholas Rly., 1888, 4 p.c. Bonds, Redeem., fully paid
1,920,000	Moscow-Iaroslav Guar., 1868
2,975,000	Moscow-Windau-Rybinsk, 1889, 4 p.c. Bonds, Redeem. (Guar. by Russian Government)
23,110,000	Nicolas Rly., 4 p.c., 1867-69, int. due May 1 and Nov. 1 (£2)
8,904,200	Transcaucasian Rly., 3 p.c., 1882, int. due June 15 and Dec. 15
998,060	Troitzk and Kokand-Namangan Rlys., 4½ p.c. Bonds, Redeem., due Apr. 1. (Guar. by Russian Government) £3

<i>Authorised Capital.</i> £	<i>Name. General</i>
5,000	Anglo-Russian Agency (Percy Nisbet & Co.)
50,000	Anglo-Russian Contract Company
502,000	Anglo-Russian Cotton Factories, Ord. £2 Shares
300,000	—4½ p.c. 1st Charge Debs., Red. £100
200,000	—6 p.c. Debentures
10,000	Anglo-Russian Photo Company
2,900	Anglo-Russian Public Works and Enterprises
20,000	Anglo-Russian Tobacco Company
500,000	Anglo-Russian Trust, Ord. Shares, fully paid
500,000	—5 p.c. Pref. non-cum., fully paid
100,000	British Russian Corporation
110,000	City of Petrograd New Waterworks Co.
1,000	Commercial Trust Co. of Russia
80,000	Imperial Russian Cotton and Jute Factory, Pref. Shares
40,000	—Ord. Shares
70,000	—5 p.c. Debentures
50,000	Inter-Russian Syndicate
32,000	Kostroma Forests
200,000	London Commercial Co. for Russia
30,000	Mynell Syndicate
1,200,000	New Russia Co., 6 p.c. 1st Mtge. Debs., fully paid
15,000	Petersburg Syndicate
25,000	Properties Syndicate of Petrograd
500	Roussanovsky Syndicate
35,000	Russian Agency Russian and Oriental Development and Investment
25,000	Russian Forest Development
2,500,000	Russian General Oil Corporation (Société Générale Kaphthifere Russe) Russian Tyre and Rubber Import Russian Works Syndicate
75,000	Russo-British
159,250	Russian Trust and Finance Co.
5,000	Russian Investment Syndicate
13,200	St. Petersburg Scenic Railway
Mines and Explorations	
100,000	Amalgamated Russian Copper Mines
120,000	Anglo-Siberian Company
1,000	Asiatic Concessions

<i>Authorised Capital.</i>	<i>Name.</i>
£	Mines and Explorations
250,000	Atbasar Copper
69,320	Azof Coal Company
500,000	Caucasus Copper
500,000	Caucasus Domains
20,000	Caucasus Gold Mining Syndicate
50,000	Caucasus Mineral Syndicate
20,000	Caucasus Silver Lead Mines
280,000	Kluchi Gold
150,000	Kutais Mining and Timber Concessions
1,000,000	Kyshtim Corporation
400,000	—6 p.c. Debentures, fully paid
1,405,000	Lena Gold-fields
200,000	Mount Dzyshra (Caucasus) Exploration Company
250,000	Mount Elborus Mines
1,100,000	Nerchinsk Gold-fields
150,000	New Central Siberia
100	New Lena Gold
360,000	North Ural Mining Company
40,000	Olekma and Vitim (Lena) Gold Syndicate
600,000	Orsk Gold-fields (Priority)
300,000	Perm Corporation
5,000	Petrovsk Syndicate
	Pioneer Company of Siberia
2,500	Russian Copper Syndicate
130,000	Russian Gold-fields
11,165	Russian Minerals (Société d'Etudes)
153,750	Russian Mining Corporation
5,000	Russian Properties Development Syndicate
300,000	Russo-Asiatic
15,000	Sakhalin Proprietary Syndicate
10,000	Semipalatinsk Syndicate
200,000	Siberian Gold Dredging Company
135,000	Siberian Proprietary
100,000	Siberian Syndicate
50,000	Siberian Trust
500,000	Spassky Copper
	Tanalyk Corporation
250,000	Tchita-Nerchinsk Company
600,000	Troitzk Gold (Priority)
90,000	United Siberian Exploration Company
2,500	Ural Explorations Syndicate
2,200,000	Ural Railway, Navigation, and Mining Corporation
202,500	Vagiliano Anthracite Collieries

<i>Authorised Capital.</i>	<i>Name</i>
£	Russian Oil Companies
	(PÉTROLES RUSSES)
50,000	Akhurtcha Maikop Oil-fields Syndicate
10,000	Anapa Oil Lands
5,500	Anglo-French Maikop Syndicate
200,000	Anglo-Maikop Corporation
400,000	Anglo-Russian Maximoff
5,000	Anglo-Russian Oil Proprietors Syndi- cate
200,000	Anglo-Russian Petroleum
100	Anglo-Taman Oil-field Finance Syndicate
60,000	Anglo-Taman Petroleum Corporation
120,000	Anglo-Terek Petroleum
2,000,000	Asiatic Petroleum
60,000	Azov-Taman Oil-fields
750,000	Baku Russian Petroleum (1909)
460,000	Bibi-Eybat Petroleum, shares, fully paid, Nos. 1 to 380,000
125,000	—5½ p.c. Debs., Redeem., fully paid, Nos. 1 to 1,250
300,000	Black Sea Oil-fields
75,000	British Liaposoff White Oil Co.
120,000	British Maikop Oil
60,000	Caucasian Oil
351,000	Chatma Oil-fields
300,000	Cheleken Oil-fields
5,000	Circassian Syndicate
380,000	European Oil-fields Corporation
1,100,000	European Petroleum
750,000	Ferghana Oil-fields
500,000	General Oil and Finance Corporation
3,000	General Purposes Syndicate
750,000	Gleboff Grosny Petroleum
120,000	Grosny Oil Company
83,000	International Maikop
100,000	Kabardino Maikop Oil-fields
300,000	Kasbek Syndicate
1,100	K.B. Syndicate
20,000	K.N. Syndicate

CHAPTER XXVII

RUSSIAN RAILWAYS

THE railway travelling in Russia is the cheapest and most comfortable in Europe when the benefits received for a small outlay are taken into consideration. The buffets, both on the main lines and in the distant Caucasus, are better provisioned for the prices than any in England, France, or Germany; at most Russian stations the tables are crowded with every imaginable delicacy—game, meat, fruit, etc.—and side tables hold *hors d'œuvres* ("zakuske") and liqueurs in quantity and quality all that can be desired. For those of more moderate tastes there are plentiful supplies of confectionery, cakes, tea, and coffee, the charge for which is very low.

Most of these buffets are in the hands of Tartars, since they make excellent waiters, and are honest and temperate. As a rule, the principal hotel proprietor or caterer in each town is requested to supply the stations by the Government inspectors. As long as the food and drink are up to the mark, and no serious complaints occur, the contract is retained; but should there be negligence or slackness, or any victimisation of the long-suffering public (as is so often the case in England), the contract is given to a better man and kept by him as long as he treats the travellers decently.

The cuisine of the chief hotels in the larger towns is perfectly satisfactory, and prices are moderate unless one demands delicacies ("delikatessen") from abroad; should these be asked for, the cost is astonishing. A bottle of stout costing 6d. at home, will be priced 2s. or 3s. in Moscow. French and German wines are also very high, but there are many good native brands, and it is unnecessary to patronise foreign vintages. Russian mineral waters are also acceptable; one particular spring, the "Narzan," which is supposed to give to old men the vigour of youth, cannot be surpassed by any spa on the Continent.

Journeys in Russia are comfortable if you are not in a hurry; otherwise they are disappointing. The national ideal is not to "get there quick," as in America, but rather "go slowly and you will get there more surely." In Russia, the man who is in a violent hurry often comes to grief before half his journey is finished.

Fares

There are over 40,000 miles of track, most of which belongs to the State. The zone tariff introduced by M. de Witte and M. Vishnigradsky, Minister of Finance, obtains throughout the Empire, with remarkable results on long-distance journeys, as it means that the farther you have to go the less, proportionately, is the fare. The cost of tickets for passengers on the ordinary post-train, including the Government tax, is arranged as follows—

For 100 to 200 versts, 3rd class, the charge is on every verst ; but after 300 the charge is on the total length of the journey.

For 2nd class, the payment is one and a half times 3rd class. A 1st class ticket is two and a half times the cost of a 3rd.

Children from 5 to 10 years of age are charged only a quarter of the fare, whichever class they travel by.

A passenger travelling from 300 to 325 versts (*cir.* 200 miles) is charged R9-50, 1st class ; R5-70, 2nd class ; R3-50, 3rd class ; and a few copecks for 10 lb. of luggage. For a journey of 5,321 to 5,390 versts (about 5,000 miles), the charges are : R76 1st, R45-60 2nd, and R30-40 3rd, while the luggage will cost at the rate of R1-65 for every 10 lb. Emigrants, many thousands of whom travel to Siberia every year, have still more tempting fares ; a trip of 1,800 versts costs only R3, 2,000 versts R3-42, while a journey of 6,000 versts can be made for 7 roubles ! The luggage of the emigrant for this enormous distance will cost him but 60 copecks per pood (the pood being 36 lb.). The majority of the peasants are so exceedingly poor, and the distances are so immense, that were it not for these cheap fares, travelling would be absolutely impossible for a large portion of the population. The carriages are exceedingly roomy, though on some lines they are not too clean, and frequently convey minute passengers which never do and never will pay their fares. But in Russia one does not take much notice of such trifles, and on

the whole the journeys are interesting and pleasant if, as I said before, you are not pressed for time. A little "palm oil" for the officials, circumspectly applied when occasion demands, helps one considerably over any rough places. Second class carriages are roomy, and as almost all the trains are built on the corridor system, one can roam from one end to the other, studying the people. A visit to the 3rd class compartments, however, is not to be recommended unless one's olfactory organs are hardened to strange and bewildering odours, among which the reek of "machorka," the strong, black tobacco of the peasants, will prevail. This weed they make into cigarettes with old newspapers, which, in Russia, are never wasted and thrown away.

Unpunctual Trains

As the trains stay 5, 10, 20, or even 30 minutes at the principal stations, there is always plenty of time to alight and refresh the inner man. There is little fear of losing the train, for guards and porters usually blow sundry whistles and ring bells, perhaps two or three times, before the train starts. People must remember that in Russia time is not money, and that the farther you travel from Petrograd, "that German town," as good Muscovites call it, the nearer you are to Asia, with its leisurely customs and ancient traditions. The trains are often late; but the true Russian has no love for punctuality. In his heart he despises the German for possessing the qualities which he lacks—order,

carefulness, and economy. In one of my works I told the story of how the merchants in a certain Little Russian town actually protested in a body to the railway authorities because the trains were too punctual, and that there was not time to gossip and drink the innumerable cups of tea required by a business discussion before the trains started ! It is quite certain that anyone who seeks popularity in Russia must not try to introduce Western notions of haste and push in business circles. If he does, he will be left in the cold, and some astute Westerner who does not mind wasting whole days in some stuffy " trakter " (tea-shop), swilling tea and lemon, will in the end succeed.

On most trains, places can be reserved by paying a small extra sum ; but should one wish to travel by a courier or express, the cost is much greater than in the ordinary, slower postal trains. Bedding can be hired from the attendant ; but most Russians carry their bedding with them—pillows, bolsters, sheets, and blankets. Even in small hotels I have been asked whether I have brought my own bedding and towels, my own tea, coffee, lemon, and sugar. The real native idea of an hotel is that it should be a simple shelter for the night ; with him it is never intended to take the place of a residence or a second home.

Steamboat Travelling

Steamboat travelling is just as comfortable and cheap as the journeys by train. The Volga and

Kama boats are fitted with luxury to a surprising degree : electric light, libraries and reading rooms, baths, buffet, piano, etc., in the best style. The food and wines are excellent ; a good lunch can be had for 65 copecks, and a substantial dinner for one or two roubles. There are many companies, the principal being the A. Zeveke, the Samolet, the Rus, and the Kavkaz-Mercury. Most of the steamers are on the model of the American river-boats ; some even bear suggestive names such as *Mississippi*, *Missouri*, *Arkansas*, and so on. The cost of a ticket from Petrograd to Astrachan, 1st class, is only about R50 ; 2nd class, R30. Part of this journey, as far as Rybinsk, is by rail ; but, if desired, one can go for about 2,000 miles by river. This, however, is apt to become a slow and tedious business, and is not to be recommended.

(W. B. S.)

PETROGRAD RAILWAY STATIONS

1. Nicolaevsky, Znamenski Square, for Moscow.
2. Tsarskoselsky, Zagorodny Prospect, for Tsarskoe Selo and Kieff.
3. Varshavsky, Obvodny Canal, end of Ismailovsky Pros., for Warsaw and abroad.
4. Baltisky, Obvodny Canal, next to Varshavsky, for Peterhof and Gatchina and Revel.
5. Finlandsky, on Viborg side, for Finland.
6. Primorsky, in the New Village, for Ozersky Sestroretsk.
7. Eereenovsky, in the New Village, for Shlusselburg.

TICKET OFFICES

- Beelietskaya Kassa, corner of Nevsky and Troitsky No. 1.
Goods Office, or Tovarnaya, Sadawvaya 6. From 10 to 6.
Holidays, 10 to 1.
Those wishing to buy a ticket or send baggage can announce the fact by letter or telephone.

For passenger tickets the town office takes 20 per cent. of the value of the ticket, but never more than 20 copecks.

For baggage, the office takes 7 copecks per pood (36 lb.) and not less than 50 copecks for dispatch.

Passengers engaging berths for night travel are advised to purchase tickets with odd numbers—they are all lower berths.

OFFICE OF THE INTERNATIONAL SLEEPING CAR COMPANY:
Nevsky Prospect 24. From 10 to 5. Holidays, from 12 to 2.

MESSENGER SERVICE

Messengers (Posilny) in red caps stand at the corners of the chief streets. Ordinary messages, 30 to 40 copecks; transmission of parcels, the same.

TELEPHONE STATIONS

Morskaia 22 and Field of Mars 7. Charge: 15 copecks for 5 minutes. Between Petrograd and Moscow: 3 minutes, 1 rouble 50 copecks.

ADDRESS BUREAU

(Sadawvaya 58. Telephone 37. Open from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m.)

If the traveller wishes to find anybody's address, he must buy in a tobacco shop an "address blank" ("adressny blank"), with answer, and send to the Sadawvaya, with the name of the desired person written thereon.

HOTELS

Petrograd, Moscow, and many of the large towns, are quite equal as regards hotel accommodation to other European cities.

The four best hotels in Petrograd are—

The Hotel Europe, the most modern and most expensive.

The Hotel France, Morskaia 6.

The Hotel d'Angleterre, Isaac Square.

The Grand Hotel, Gogol Street.

The Hotel France is especially frequented by the official world.

Prices generally—

Breakfast, 75 copecks.

Lunch, 75 copecks.

Dinner, 1 rouble, 50 copecks.

Rooms from 2 roubles upwards.

Pension from 5 roubles upwards.

RESTAURANTS

Excellent cuisine, equal to, if not actually excelling, that of other civilised countries.

The most fashionable are—

The Medvied, Bolshaya Konnushenaya 27.

Cuba (Café de Paris), Morskaya 16.

Donon.

Contan Moika Canal 58.

Pivato, Morskaya 36.

Ernest, Kamenoöstrovsky 60.

Also the restaurants attached to the hotels already mentioned.

Second-class restaurants, but recommended—

Vienna, Gogol Street 13.

Leinner, Nevsky 18.

Palkin, Nevsky 47.

Café Albert (corner of Police Bridge and Moika).

VARIATION OF TIME

When it is 12 noon at Petrograd it is the following local time at—

Greenwich	9.59 a.m.
Mid-European	10.59 „
New York	5.3 „
Paris	10.8 „
Vienna	11.4 „
Berlin	11.41 „

(From the *Anglo-Russian Almanac*.)

RUSSIAN WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND CURRENCY, WITH ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS

MEASURE OF LENGTH

1 Russ. vershok	=	1.75 Eng. in.
1 „ arshin	= 16 vershok = 28	„ in. = 0.777 Eng. yd.
1 „ line	= 10 points = 10	„ line
1 „ dueim	= 10 lines = 10	„ lines
1 „ foot	= 12 inches = 1	„ ft.
1 „ sazhen	= 3 arshin = 7	„ ft. = 2.333 Eng. yd.
1 „ versta	= 500 sazhen = 3,500	„ „ = 0.662 „ mile

SQUARE MEASURE

1 Russ. square vershok	=	3.062 Eng. square in.
1 „ „ arshin	=	0.605 „ „ yd.
1 „ „ sazhen	=	5.444 „ „ „
1 „ „ dessiatine	= 13066.66	„ „ „ = 2.7 Eng. acr.
1 „ „ versta	= 0.439	„ „ „ mile

CUBIC MEASURE

1 Russ. cubic	vershok	=	5.359	Eng. cubic	in.
1 "	"	foot	=	1	" " ft.
1 "	"	arshin	=	0.471	" " yd.
1 "	"	sazhen	=	12.7	" " "

WEIGHTS

1 Russ. doli			=	0.025	Eng. drachms
1 "	zolotnik	= 96	Russ. dolias	= 2.407	" "
1 "	lot	= 3	" zolotniks	= 7.222	" "
1 "	funt	= 32	lots = 96 zolot.	= 0.903	" lb. Avoir.
		=	"	= 1.097	" " Troy
1 "	pood	= 40	funts (36 lb.)	= 0.322	" cwt.
1 "	berkovetz	= 10	poods	= 3.224	" "

APOTHECARIES WEIGHT

1 Russ. scrupul	=	20 gran	=	0.7021	Eng. dram. Avoir.
1 "	drachma	=	3 scrupuli	= 2.165	" " "
1 "	untzia	=	8 drachma	= 1.532	" oz. "
1 Apothec's funt	=	84 zolotniks	=	0.7899	" lb. "
1 "	"	= 0.875	comm. funt	= 0.7876	" " "

LIQUID MEASURE

1 Russ. tcharka	=	$\frac{1}{100}$ vedro	=	0.866	Eng. gill
1 "	bottle	= $\frac{1}{20}$ "	= 5 tcharka	= 1.083	" pt.
1 "	Shtoff	= 10 tcharka or osmushka	=	1.083	" qt.
1 "	vedro	= 10 shtoff or krushki	=	2.707	" gall.
1 "	botchka	= 40 vedro	=	108.279	" "

DRY MEASURE

1 Russ. garnets	=	0.361	English peck		
1 "	chetverik	= 8 garnets	= 0.722	Eng. imperial bushel.	
1 "	poluosmina	= 2 chetverik	= 1.444	" " "	
1 "	osmina	= 4 "	= 2.888	" " "	
1 "	chetvert	= 8 "	= 5.775	" " "	

MONEY (CURRENCY—GOLD STANDARD)

UNIT = THE ROUBLE = 100 COPECKS

1 Russ. rouble	=	25.376	Eng. pence = 2s. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.
10 "	"	=	£1 1s. 1d.
9 Roubles 45.7 copecks	=	£1	

Remark.—These calculations are based upon the weight of the pure gold at Mint issue.

(From the *Anglo-Russian Almanac*.)

CHAPTER XXVIII

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR TRAVELLERS

VISITORS to Russia must be provided with passports bearing the *visa* of a Russian Diplomatic or Consular Officer. Without such *visa* they will not be allowed to enter the country. To persons of the Jewish faith the *visa* will not be granted unless they are bankers or persons of the highest social standing. The *visa* costs 5s. 10d.

Holders of passports must state their religion before the *visa* will be granted.

The passport will enable the holder to reside in Russia for six months, when it must be exchanged at the Prefecture of Petrograd or at the Chancery of a Provincial Governor, for a Russian *billet de séjour*, to be renewed annually.

The cost of such a *billet de séjour* varies from 7·15 to 1·29 roubles. Each *billet de séjour* on first issue or renewal must be delivered to the local police officer for inscription or *visa*. For non-renewal of a *billet de séjour* at the time of its expiration, a fine is exacted.

On leaving Russia, a Police Certificate must be obtained, which is granted on the first visit of the traveller to Russia at a cost of 75 copecks; on subsequent visits, 6·50 roubles is charged. If a *billet de séjour* has been obtained, it must be returned, when the passport will be handed back to the owner with the necessary authorisation to leave.

In the case of persons travelling through Russia without stopping at any point within the Empire, the *visa* of a Russian Consular Officer "to travel through Russia" will be accepted as sufficient, for the purpose of both entering and leaving the country, without obligation to obtain the police authorisation to leave, necessary in case of a stay in Russia.

Applications for Foreign Office passports must be made in a special form supplied at the Foreign Office Passport Department, or by Thomas Cook & Son, Ludgate Circus, E.C. Passports are issued at the Foreign Office between the hours of 11 and 4 on the day following that on which the application for the passport has been received, except on Sundays and public holidays, when the Passport Offices are closed.

Foreign Office passports are granted only : (1) To natural-born British subjects, viz., persons born within His Majesty's dominions, and to persons born abroad who derive British nationality from a paternal or maternal grandfather born within His Majesty's dominions, and who, under the provisions of the Acts 4 George II, cap. 21, and 13 George III, cap. 21, are to be adjudged and taken to be natural-born British subjects ; (2) to the wives and widows of such persons ; (3) to persons naturalised in the United Kingdom, in the British Colonies, or in India.

A married woman is deemed to be a subject of the State of which her husband is for the time being a subject.

Passports are granted to such persons as are known to the Secretary of State, or recommended to him by some person who is known to him ; or :

- (1) In the case of natural-born British subjects and persons naturalised in the United Kingdom, upon the production of a declaration by the applicant verified by a declaration made by any banking firm established in the United Kingdom, or by any mayor, magistrate, justice of the peace, minister of religion, barrister-at-law, physician, surgeon, solicitor, or notary resident in the United Kingdom. The applicant's certificate of birth may also be required, especially when his name is of foreign origin.
- (2) In the case of children under the age of 14 years requiring a separate passport, upon production of a declaration made by the child's parent or guardian in a form (B) to be obtained at the Foreign Office or at Messrs. Cook's offices.
- (3) In the case of persons naturalised in any of the British Colonies, upon production of a letter of recommendation from the Colonial Office ; and in the case of natives of British India and persons naturalised therein, upon production of a letter of recommendation from the India Office.
- (4) If the applicant for a passport be a naturalised British subject, his certificate of naturalisation must be forwarded to the Foreign Office with the declaration or letter of recommendation. Naturalised British subjects, if resident in London or in the suburbs, must apply personally for their passports at the Foreign Office ; if resident in the country, the

passport will be sent, and the certificate of naturalisation returned to the person who may have verified the declaration, in order that he may cause the applicant to sign the passport in his presence.

Naturalised British subjects will be described as such in their passports, which will be issued subject to the necessary qualifications.

Foreign Office passports are not available beyond five years ; fresh passports must then be obtained.

A passport cannot be issued by the Foreign Office or by an agent at an outport on behalf of a person already abroad ; such person should apply for one to the nearest British mission or consulate.

The bearer of every passport granted by the Foreign Office must sign his passport as soon as received ; without such signature, either the *visa* may be refused, or the validity of the passport questioned abroad.

On leaving Russia, foreigners are required to obtain from the local police, at a charge of 60 copecks for stamp duties, etc., a permit to do so, declaring that there are no obstacles to their leaving the Empire. The Russian *billet de séjour* belonging to a foreigner who is about to leave the country must be exchanged for a special travelling passport, to be produced and given up to the authorities at the Russian frontier. Anyone neglecting to provide himself with the Russian passport for foreigners after the expiration of six months' residence in the Empire is liable to a fine not exceeding 10

roubles, according to the length of time he has been without it.

It must be remembered that hotel proprietors may not entertain any visitor who does not produce his passport. On production, the passport is sent to the police-station, and payment must be made for the police *visa* before the traveller can leave the hotel. Notice of departure must be given twenty-four hours before leaving. On arrival in a town, the passport must, therefore, be given to the proprietor of the hotel or rooms. Price of stamping by the police varies from 20 to 40 copecks.

Foreign Money, and Letters of Credit

Drafts and Letters of Credit payable in foreign money may be had on the principal towns abroad from foreign bankers in London, subject to no deduction for exchange or commission; Circular Notes of small denomination are issued by most of the London bankers. A letter indicating the name of the correspondent abroad accompanies the note, which must be produced on presenting it for payment; the letter should be kept separate from the notes.

The traveller should always be provided with small change in the current coin of the country, as every exchange entails a loss. English money and bank-notes can be exchanged in the principal cities; but it is wiser to be provided with foreign money before leaving, to avoid possible difficulty.

Useful Weights and Measures

A penny weighs one-third of an ounce, or 10 grammes ; a halfpenny, one-fifth of an ounce. A French centime weighs a gramme ; its diameter is one centimetre ; 100 centimes in a row equal a metre. An inch is $2\frac{1}{2}$ centimetres. A halfpenny is 1 inch in diameter.

Luggage

It should be borne in mind that a passenger cannot claim more space for his hand-baggage than is comprised under the seat or in the overhead netting. This allows for very little hand-baggage in all countries except Russia, where the breadth of the netting, and its strength, permit the traveller to place such an amount of luggage as would be impossible elsewhere. Travellers to Russia are allowed 56 lb. of registered luggage free. Registration of luggage will save all the trouble and expense of landing and shipping it and conveying it between the train and boat, harbour dues, and other imposts. The registration fees range from 6d. to 1s. per passenger, or 4d. per package, according to the route travelled.

All luggage, registered or not, is examined at Wirballen ; and, if the passenger travels *via* Calais, also at Herbesthal. There is also an examination of unregistered luggage at the Dutch frontier town of Goch. The traveller is advised to personally attend the examination of his luggage.

INSURANCE. Baggage can be insured by payment

of a small premium at any of Thomas Cook & Son's offices. The insurance covers all risk of loss by fire, theft, and pilfering ; also damage by sea-water, and damage sustained at hotels or travelling between hotels and railway stations. Insurance can be effected for amounts of £20 and upward. Jewellery to the value of £40, if not placed in the registered baggage, can be covered by this insurance. Special insurance can be effected for jewellery of greater value.

BAGGAGE FORWARDING. Baggage, cargo, etc., will be collected by Thomas Cook & Son from any address, and stored, shipped, or forwarded to any part of the world.

CYCLES. The duty is 18 roubles (about 37s. 6d.) for each cycle, which will be refunded on leaving if a stamped declaration has been made on entering that a claim for refundage will be made.

ANNEX. Passengers' luggage, except hand-baggage, not entered in the passengers' list, or into the lading documents on vessels, and not called for within fourteen days, passes into the possession of the Government.

Customs Regulations

The examination of travellers' luggage is carried out at Wirballen, where there is a delay of at least one hour. Passengers must themselves be present at the customs examination, and hand their keys to the officer, or to the porter (Noseelschik) who has carried their hand-luggage from the carriage to the customs depot.

Application is frequently made to Russian Consular officers for information as to the Russian Customs Regulations concerning foreign lottery tickets, passengers' luggage and books. The chief enactments of Russian law as to these matters are as follows—

Persons arriving in Russia from abroad, whatever their position in life, are only allowed to pass the frontier after they have undergone the customs examination prescribed by law, and they must not in any case oppose such examination.

Persons leaving Russia are, together with their goods, subject to examination only if the customs authorities have good reason to suspect that they are carrying articles which are subject to export duty, or which are altogether forbidden to be exported.

All foreigners arriving in the Empire (including Poland), whilst being examined and passed at the frontier, are notified that it is unlawful to bring in tickets of foreign lotteries.

Bonds issued by foreign States are allowed to be brought in, but not "lottery loans of private persons, companies, or towns."

Passengers' luggage is considered to consist of those things which are in the possession of passengers, and which are required by them during the voyage.

Climate

Speaking generally, the climate is of an extreme character, the winter being colder and the summer

warmer than in the corresponding latitudes of Western Europe. Spring is mild and temperate in the south; summer long, oppressive, and with little rain; autumn sets in rather late. In Petrograd winter hardens about the beginning of November, when the Neva freezes, to open again about the end of April. The Central region has a rough winter, and in the North it is long and severe; travelling is practicable only on sledges over the frozen snow. The following table of the mean Fahrenheit temperature of various districts may be useful—

	<i>Annual.</i>	<i>Winter.</i>	<i>Summer.</i>
Petrograd . . .	38.7	18.3	60.6
Moscow . . .	39.6	14.7	64.9
Helsingfors . . .	38.7	20.5	59.0
Kieff . . .	44.4	22.5	65.3
Odessa . . .	49.3	25.2	70.7
Tiflis . . .	55.2	35.6	73.9
Archangel . . .	33.3	9.3	57.7
Irkoutsk . . .	31.1	1.3	61.5
Yakoutsk . . .	11.1	37.9	57.9

Exactly the same underclothing may be worn as at home, but a fur coat is essential. A walking coat, thickly wadded and with a fur collar, will be found very useful; the pockets should be deep enough to take hands and wrists. (*Anglo-Russian Almanac.*)

[*N.B.*—The majority of Russian words in this work are spelt as they sound in English, and not according to the German and French methods of spelling still in vogue with so many English writers on Russia.]

APPENDIX

CONSULAR INFORMATION AND POSTAL REGULATIONS

CONSULAR INFORMATION

BRITISH EMBASSY :

4, Court Quay, Petrograd.

Ambassador	Rt. Hon. Sir George Buchanan, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O.
Counsellor	Hon. F. O. Lindley.
Secretaries	H. J. Bruce, M.V.O. Sir S. Head, Bart. R. J. V. Astell. H. W. Brooks.
Attaché	E. Cunard.
Hon. Attaché	Hon. G. Colebrooke.
Translator	Capt. Rowland Smith.
British Commercial Attaché	H. A. Cooke, Foreign Office, London.

BRITISH CONSULAR OFFICERS

PETROGRAD .	Consul . . .	Arthur W. Woodhouse
	Vice-Consul .	C. H. Mackie
	Pro-Consul .	G. Dobson
ARCHANGEL .	Consul . . .	Douglas Young
CRONSTADT .	Vice-Consul .	A. Fishwick
EKATERINBURG	" "	T. H. Preston
KEM	" "	T. Woodhouse
NARVA	" "	G. Cottam
PORT MURMAN	Consul . . .	T. H. Hall
REVEL	Vice-Consul .	W. Girard
TORREA	" "	J. Lowdon
BATOUM.	Consul . . .	P. W. J. Stevens
ASTRAKHAN .	Vice-Consul .	A. W. Howe
BAKU	" "	A. E. Ranald McDonell
NOVOROSSISK	" "	O. Geelmuyden
POTI	" "	J. Pavoni (<i>acting</i>)
TIFLIS	" "	F. Tyler
HELSINGFORS	Acting-Consul .	H. M. Grove
	Vice-Consul .	S. W. Wancke
ABO	" "	W. J. B. Wilson
BJORNEBORG	" "	C. G. Sundell
BORGA	Consular-Agent	Einar Paavola

GAMLA KARLEBY	Vice-Consul	.	W. Sinedlund
HANGO	.	" "	Uno Cairenius
KOTKA	.	" "	A. Gullichsen
KRISTINESTAD	.	" "	A. Starck
LOVISA	.	" "	A. Ljungqvist
NICOLAISTADT	.	" "	K. Kurten
TAMMERFORS.	.	" "	J. Reddyhough
ULABORG	.	" "	J. R. Weckman
WIBORG	.	" "	V. Frisk
MOSCOW	.	Acting-Consul- General and Vice-Consul.	R. H. Lockhart
KRASNOJARSK (Siberia)	.	Vice-Consul	(<i>vacant</i>)
OMSK	.	" "	S. R. Randrup
ODESSA	.	Acting Consul- General	J. P. Bagge
BERDIANSK	.	Vice-Consul	J. E. Greaves
EUPATORIA	.	Consular-Agent	H. J. B. Martin
KERSCH	.	Vice-Consul	M. N. Megalos
KHARKOV	.	" "	C. Blakey
KHERSON	.	" "	E. Carnana
KIEFF	.	" "	J. F. Douglas
MARIUPOL	.	" "	W. S. Walton
NICOLAIEFF	.	" "	(<i>vacant</i>)
ROSTOF-ON-DON	.	" "	J. A. Waite
SEBASTOPOL	.	" "	(<i>vacant</i>)
TAGANROG	.	" "	E. Clively
THEODOSIA	.	" "	W. E. W. von Sturler
RIGA	.	Consul	V. H. C. Bosanquet
	.	Vice-Consul	G. O. Wiskemann
LIBAU	.	" "	(<i>vacant</i>)
PERNAU	.	" "	J. Dicks
WINDAU.	.	" "	E. A. Worth
VLADIVOSTOCK	.	Consul	R. MacLeod Hodgson
WARSAW	.	Consul	H. M. Grove
	.	Vice-Consul	E. B. St. Clair

POSTAL REGULATIONS

<i>Rate.</i>	<i>Limit of weight.</i>	<i>Limits of size.</i>	<i>Limit of Insured value for letters.</i>	<i>Frequency of service.</i>
Letters. 2½d. first oz.; 1½d. each oz. after.		2 ft. in length; 1 ft. in width or depth.	£400	Almost daily.
Post Cards. Single, 1d. ; reply paid, 2d. each.		Maximum size, 14 centimetres by 9 centimetres (5½ in. by 3½ in.)		„
Printed Papers. ½d. per 2 oz.	4 lb.	1½ ft. in length; 1 ft. in depth or width. If in form of roll, 30 in. in length, and 4 in. in diameter.		„
Commercial Papers. 2½d. for first 10 oz. and ½d. per 2 oz. thereafter.	4 lb.			„
Samples. 1d. for first 4 oz., and ½d. per 2 oz. thereafter.	12 oz.	12 in. by 8 in. by 4 in.; if in form of roll, 12 in. with dia- meter of 6 in.		„

Registration Fee.—2d. for all articles, except parcels which cannot be registered.

Advice of Delivery.—2½d. for registered or insured articles only.

Insurance Fee.—4d. for £12, and 2d. for every additional £12.

Prohibited Articles.—Coin, gold and silver bullion, jewellery, precious stones, and other valuables; printed matter, etc., of the nature of merchandise, wholly or partly in Russian, not produced in Russia (except dictionaries); pictures, drawings, or sketches, however produced (except oleographs, engravings, prints or similar reproductions of works of Russian artists, and reproductions of pictures, etc., in books or journals in foreign languages); articles of celluloid including cinematograph films; alcohol and alcoholic beverages unless addressed to properly

authorised firms. Samples of rags must have the sanitary or police authority's certificate of disinfection. Bound books, pieces of music, maps or plans, are delivered against payment of Customs duty. Books published in Finland and bound or re-printed in foreign countries, and books and forms of a commercial nature (*e.g.*, account books, cheque books), are prohibited from transmission to Finland. All inadmissible articles are liable to confiscation.

The addresses of letters for Russia should be very plainly written; the name of the town, and of the province in which it is situated, should also be added in English or French.

Place of Destination.	Route and Approximate Course of Post.	Frequency of Service.	Rates of Postage from United Kingdom.			Limits of		
			Parcels not exceeding			Insured Value.	Size.	
			3 lb.	7 lb.	11 lb.		Length, Breadth or Depth.	Length and Girth combined.
			s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		ft.	ft.
¹ RUSSIA IN EUROPE, including Finland & Trans-Caucasia	By sea direct to Archangel	Service suspended	1 9	2 1	2 5	400	3½	6
	Viâ Norway & Archangel	"	2 2	2 6	2 10	400		
	Viâ Sweden	"	2 2	2 8	3 2	No service		
	Viâ Norway & Sweden	"	2 7	2 11	3 3	400		
	Viâ Canada & Japan	Weekly	5 4	6 6	7 8	120		
¹ RUSSIA IN ASIA	By sea direct	Service suspended	2 9	3 1	3 5	400	3½	6
	Viâ Norway & Archangel	"	3 2	3 6	3 10	400		
	Viâ Sweden	"	3 2	3 8	4 2	No service		
	Viâ Norway & Sweden	"	3 7	3 11	4 3	400		
	Viâ Canada & Japan	Weekly	3 2	4 4	5 6	120		
	Viâ Canada & Japan	Weekly	4 5	5 7	6 9	120		

¹ Advice of delivery of insured parcels obtainable.

¹C 2. **Prohibitions (*Russia in Europe*).**—Letters; small silver and copper coins, Russian or foreign; air-guns; sword-sticks; playing cards; margarine products; artificial saffron; articles coloured with arsenical dyes; all parts of the vine

¹ The letter "C" indicates that a non-adhesive Customs Declaration Form may be used. The figure following the "C" shows the number of identical copies of the Customs Declaration which are required in each case.

- except grapes; plants (unless accompanied by a phylloxera certificate. One certificate suffices for three uninsured parcels for same addressee); swine's flesh, and all its products, except lard; brandy, poisons, alcoholic varnish, and potatoes addressed to Finland, unless for properly authorised firms; labels not sent with the goods to which they apply; aniline and similar dyes except in crystal form; unauthorised medicines; arms (except by special permission to be obtained by the addressee); old clothes sent for purposes of trade, rags, and unmanufactured animal products (unless accompanied by a proper certificate of disinfection); alcohol and alcoholic beverages (unless addressed to properly authorised firms); gold or silver articles not up to the proper standard; articles of celluloid except in wooden boxes. Numerous articles, mostly of the nature of luxuries, are prohibited from importation into Russia, except, generally speaking, when required on Government service.—See the *Board of Trade Journals* of the 26th of October, 1916, and the 4th and the 18th of January, 1917.
- C 3. **Observations.**—Parcels must be packed in wood, tin, canvas, linen, or similar material and not merely in paper or cardboard, and be securely sealed with wax or lead, preferably lead. Parcels not packed in wooden or metal boxes must be covered with canvas, linen, or oilcloth (not linen-faced paper) sewn up at the flaps and folds, and secured with string sealed at the knots and ends. Parcels covered with oilcloth must be provided with a stout linen-backed label securely sewn to the cover by stitching along the edges and diagonally across the label on which a clear space not less than 5 in. by 3 in. has been left for affixing official labels. The parcels may be addressed on the rest of the label. If addressed on the cover itself, the address must be painted on the cover, preferably with white paint. The name and address of the sender must be shown on the cover of every parcel addressed to Russia. Wooden boxes must be of stout material well screwed or nailed together at the sides, top and bottom. To avoid delay at the Russian frontier, senders are strongly advised to tie all parcels round with cord, sealing the loose ends with lead seals. Addresses must be clearly written. The name of the town and province should be added in English, French, or German. Customs Declarations must show the gross weight (in grammes) of the parcel, including the packing, and the total value of the parcel must be stated. No erasure or amendment may be made in the entries relating to the description, number, or weight of the contents. A separate entry must be made of each kind of article or goods, describing precisely in each case the quality according to the commercial denomination, the quantity (according to ordinary trade usage) by number, measurement, and net weight (in grammes), and the value in

English or in Russian currency. Neglect of these regulations will lead to the rejection of the parcel by the Russian Customs and its return to the sender.

Separate Dispatch Notes and separate Customs Declarations are required in the case of each parcel for Russia. Senders must indicate on the cover of the parcel and on the back of the relative Dispatch Note, and, if possible, in the French language, whether, in the event of non-delivery, the parcel shall be (a) re-directed to another address (in which case the alternative address should be furnished), (b) returned at the sender's expense, or (c) abandoned. No other alternative is permissible.

- C 2. **Prohibitions** (*Russia in Asia*).—Same as Russia in Europe.
- C 2. **Observations**.—Same as Russia in Europe, except that the regulations as to packing are more stringent. The parcels must be packed in strong wooden boxes or barrels at least $\frac{3}{4}$ centimetre (about 5-16 in.) thick, or in metal or leather coverings or in very strong linen or canvas.
- C 3. **Separate Dispatch Notes and separate Customs Declarations** are required in the case of each parcel for Russia. Senders must indicate on the cover of the parcel and on the back of the relative Dispatch Note, and, if possible, in the French language, whether, in the event of non-delivery, the parcel shall be (a) re-directed to another address (in which case the alternative address should be furnished), (b) returned at the sender's expense, or (c) abandoned. No other alternative is permissible.

Telegrams.¹

RUSSIA IN EUROPE—

Gt. Northern Co.	}	4½d. per word
Indo-European Co. ² (South Russia only)		
RUSSIA, CAUCASUS and		
RUSSIA, TRANSCASPIA . Ditto		4½d. „
RUSSIA IN ASIA—		
Gt. Northern Co.		4½d. „

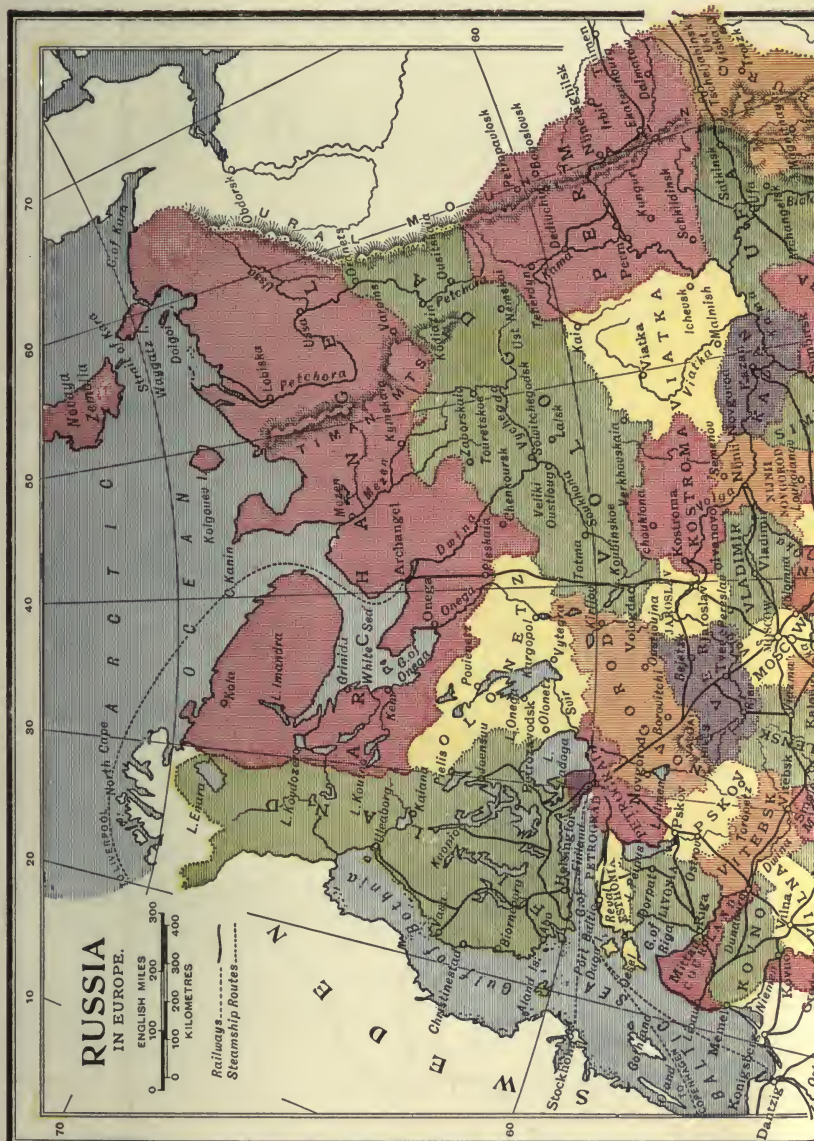
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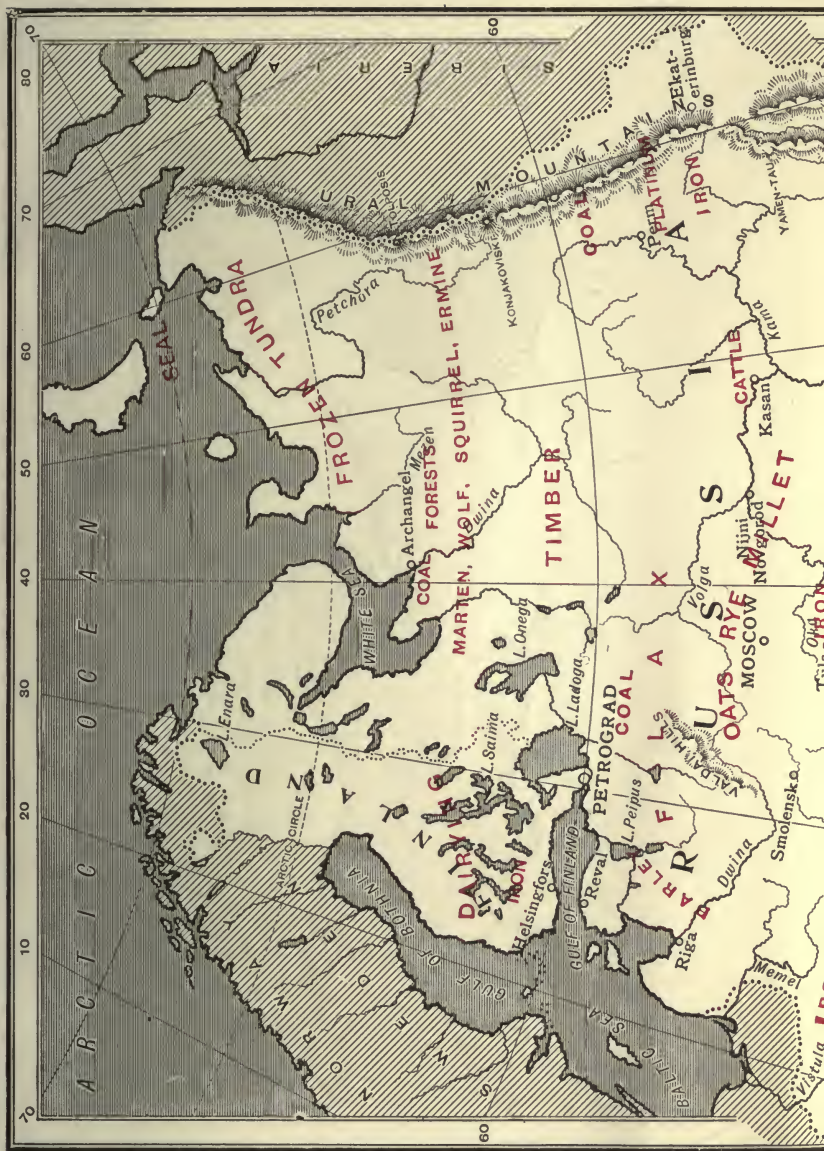
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